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An evaluation of a professional development model for primary school administrators

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AN EVALUATION OF A PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT MODEL FOR PRIMARY SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

by

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ABSTRACT

Better Schools advocated a decentralisation in the administrative structure and a devolution of responsibilities within the Western Australian education system. One outcome was the establishment of twenty nine school districts in 1987. Since then, these districts have faced the problem of providing for the professional development needs of their primary school principals. In response to this situation different districts have developed different models for the training and development of principals. This research evaluates, as a case study, a particular model developed in one of the districts. To help preserve the anonymity of the district chosen, it is referred to throughout the study under the fictitious name of the Fairmont district.

The evaluation centres around a major research question: From the view point of meeting corporate managerial needs, is there justification for the continued use of the Fairmont model? To answer this question, the study focuses only on primary school principals in the district.

Two frameworks are used to collect and analyse data. One is Daniel L. Stufflebeam's CIPP (context, input, process, product) model for program evaluation. This framework provided the basis for an investigation of the following subsidiary questions which were seen as necessary to ensure a comprehensive consideration of the major research question:

- What corporate managerial needs did the Fairmont model address and how important and pervasive are they?
- Is there justification for the selection of the I/D/E/A program as a corporate managerial model in preference to the Fairmont model?
- To what extent did any modifications to the Fairmont model affect its capacity to provide for the corporate managerial needs of primary school principals?
- From the viewpoint of the participants, what were the positive and negative outcomes of the Fairmont model in terms of developing corporate managerial skills?

The second framework was constructed from a review of the literature. It represents a typology of the key functions of corporate managerialism and the skills, knowledge and attitudes required of principals to carry out their role consistent with these functions.

Within the constraints of the two frameworks, the study followed a largely qualitative research design. Data were collected partly from documents and participant observation, but mainly from extensive interviews. Analysis of the data was conducted predominantly in terms of the typology of corporate managerialism.

The major findings to emerge from the evaluation can be summarised as follows. The Fairmont model is a needs based program which has the potential to identify the principals' most important corporate managerial training needs. It is a better option than the I/D/E/A program in terms of catering for the local principals' professional development needs. The enhanced role of the task groups and the developmental nature of the Fairmont program improved its capacity to meet the corporate managerial needs of principals. And, the model's future success can be enhanced through the inclusion of collegial problem solving activities based on information gained from visiting experts.

In short, the thesis concludes that there is qualified support for the Fairmont model and that, the justification for continuation is not unconditional.

DECLARATION

"I certify that this thesis does not incorporate without acknowledgment any material previously submitted for a degree or diploma in any institution of higher education; and that to the best of my knowledge and belief it does not contain any material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the text."

Signature:

Date: *31· 3· 93*

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INTRODUCTION

In 1987 the Western Australian Ministry of Education released a major policy document entitled Better Schools: A Program for Improvement, commonly referred to as *Better Schools*. As a result, over the past six years, the twenty nine education districts in Western Australia have faced the challenge of providing professional development for primary school principals in a changed environment. In coming to terms with this task, different districts have used different approaches.

This research evaluates, as a case study, a particular model developed in one of the twenty nine districts. To preserve the anonymity of the district chosen, it will be referred to under the fictitious name of the Fairmont district.

The need to evaluate the Fairmont district's professional development model was agreed to by the district superintendent, the school principals and the representative planning committee set up to oversee implementation of the model. The purpose of the evaluation is to provide information upon which to improve the model's capacity to deliver corporate managerial skills to local primary school principals.

The introduction sets the scene for the evaluation by providing the background to the problem. It is divided into three sections. The first section outlines the delivery of professional development prior to 1987 and highlights the devolution of decision making, with regard to principals' professional development, to the district level. The second section focuses on the efforts of the Fairmont district in dealing with the issue of providing professional development and training since 1987. The third section provides an overview of the professional development model designed by the Fairmont district as a solution to the problem.

Outlining the organisation and delivery of professional development in the district, before and after the release of *Better Schools*, combined with an overview of the resultant Fairmont model, sets the problem in perspective and helps to conceptualise its nature.

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT PRIOR TO 1987

Prior to the introduction of *Better Schools* in 1987, the Fairmont district was part of a neighbouring area which formed a larger educational region. During this period professional development consisted mainly of one major conference organised each year by the regional superintendent, supplemented by smaller in-service courses designed and run by educational specialists located in either the regional or central office of the Ministry of Education.

Principals from Class III schools[1] upwards were invited to attend the major conference each year. Principals were not formally consulted about the objectives and content of each conference. Instead, these decisions were made within the regional office. The purpose and direction of conferences appeared to be under the direct influence and control of powerful regional superintendents although senior officers from the central office were usually invited to address the principals. Ostensibly, in-service courses were conducted to serve the interests of all school personnel, but again, like the major conference, the participants did not contribute to the formulation of objectives or content design.

During this period, the regional conferences provided a formal means of communication for the Education Department but were essentially controlled by the regional superintendent. There was a lack of principal as well as central office

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[1] Class III refers to schools in Western Australia with a student population ranging from 40 - 90 children and 3 - 6 staff members.

influence and participation in the planning of sessions. This approach to principals' professional development and training was disrupted by the introduction of *Better Schools*. A closer look at *Better Schools* helps to illustrate how the devolution of decision making to the district level was a means of regaining control of the training agenda for the purpose of effectively implementing change.

Broadly, *Better Schools* outlined the Ministry's proposed policy of decentralisation and new managerialism in the Western Australian school system. As part of the changes, a new structure of 29 education districts replaced the 13 existing educational regions, thereby altering the power structures established and controlled by the regional superintendents.

One of the functions of the newly formed districts was to provide for the professional development and training of local principals. District superintendents were given responsibility for creating professional networks to facilitate the changes outlined in the *Better Schools* report (1987, p.10).

The need for professional development in school management grew as a result of the changes of 1987. *Better Schools* led to a downward shift in responsibilities which had a significant impact on the role of the primary school principal. Schools were confronted with restructuring which created a need for principals to grow and change professionally in order to be effective in a new and dynamic system. In anticipation of this need *Better Schools* (1987, p.5) declared that:

> Because of the enhanced role for school principals, further assistance
> will be provided through personal development and training programs.

Clearly, the intent of training activities for principals was directly related to the implementation of the changes outlined in *Better Schools*.

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT SINCE 1987

In 1987, the Fairmont district superintendent agreed, in consultation with the secretary of the local principals' association, that all principals would meet together once per term for two days. Negotiation saw one of these days allocated to the principals and the other to the district superintendent. Principals were able to meet and discuss matters which concerned them, while the district superintendent could organise a professional development program. This constituted a structural and philosophical change from what existed prior to 1987. The arrangement was more democratic and provided additional training time. It allowed two days per term for principals to come together to discuss educational issues in an arena where they were able to control some fifty percent of the agenda.

Determination of the professional development focus remained 'top-down' until a principals' management committee was created [2] in 1988. This newly formed body transferred control over the content of professional development to the local level. The role of the district superintendent was to monitor the training in relation to the implementation of *Better Schools* whilst retaining control over the allocation of professional development funds. The new arrangement signified the district's trend towards a more open and consultative approach to decision making in professional development, consistent with the devolved management emphasis of *Better Schools*.

In an attempt to further refine and rationalise this approach, the district superintendent invited an academic management consultant to interview selected school principals early in 1988 in order to identify the professional development and management training needs of local school administrators. The consultant was invited to return in October 1988 to facilitate meetings of school principals and district office consultants

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[2]   The principals' management committee was comprised of a small group of local principal representatives who held the locus of power in regard to professional development activities.

with the aim of developing a structure by which the needs, identified during the interviews, could be addressed. In his report, the consultant stated:

> Outcomes of those meetings resulted in the design of a bi-partite brokerage-support structure that placed decisions about provision of training and   development activities jointly in the hands of school principals, the district superintendent and representatives of other interest groups in the district (Hyde, 1988, p.15).

The bi-partite brokerage-support structure consisted of three supporting structures: administrative, organisational and operational.   The administrative structure was comprised of two committees, the membership of the first being:

- the district superintendent
- a secondary principal
- a primary principal
- a remote area principal
- a deputy-principal (secondary)
- a deputy principal (primary)
- the district education officer (Executive Officer)
- a district office consultant/SDO

This committee was expected to serve an advisory and brokerage role.   More specifically, it was required to advise the second decision making committee about the functions and operations associated with program formulation.   The brokerage function involved directly contracting professional development activities as well as ensuring that formulated programs were implemented and evaluated.

The second committee, comprising the district superintendent (chairperson), all school principals throughout the district and the district education officer (executive officer) formed the decision making component of the administrative structure.   Its function consisted of authorising the recommendations of the first committee, allocating resources, ensuring that Ministry priorities were met and receiving evaluation reports.

The organisational strand of the bi-partite brokerage support structure consisted of the district education officer acting as the executive officer for both of the administrative committees.   It was the function of the district education officer to co-ordinate, arrange and maintain records of meetings. This organisational strand aimed to assist in establishing the professional development agenda by facilitating the decision making process of the administrative structure.

Once the professional development direction had been agreed upon, the operational structure, comprising the district education officer and the resources of the district office, provided the implementation function. Again, it was agreed that the district education officer's role would be to carry out the function of implementing formulated programs by utilising district office facilities and staff to co-ordinate the delivery of the professional development and management training programs which addressed the needs of local principals.

In 1989 the bi-partite brokerage-support structure was formally reviewed by the principals of the Fairmont district.   They recommended several modifications. Firstly, planning for 1990's professional development was to be conducted in 1989. Secondly, the role of the executive officer within the operational structure was to be undertaken by task groups appointed by the representative planning committee. Thirdly, the professional development plan and budget for 1990 was to be presented at the fourth term principals' conference. These changes effectively meant that the bi-partite brokerage-support model was now to consist of a two year planning and implementation cycle and an increase in the involvement of school administrators at the implementation stage. The bi-partite brokerage-support model, as modified, was called the Fairmont model. It provided a formalised participative decision making process for the professional development and management training of local principals.

The Fairmont model, as it operated in 1990, had evolved over a period of three years. The modifications were not based on any in-depth evaluation of what previously existed but were reflective of the decision makers' intuition of what was needed to improve the model. The next section helps to conceptualise the nature of the problem by analysing the characteristics of the Fairmont model.

THE FAIRMONT MODEL: AN OVERVIEW

To complete the background to the study, a brief profile which draws a clear picture of the Fairmont model's structural levels is provided. It highlights functions and responsibilities and depicts the relationship between each structure. Finally, it outlines and draws together the essential characteristics which define the model as a democratic approach to rational decision making for the provision of professional development and management training.

Functions and Responsibilities

The Fairmont model provides a structure and a process which places decisions regarding the provision of professional development jointly in the hands of all stakeholders, namely: the school administrators and the Ministry of Education (district superintendent). The involvement of all stakeholders creates a bi-partite structure which aims "to address the training and development needs of schools' administrative staff" (Hyde, 1988). It is a formal participative planning and implementation model that devolves the 'when', 'where' and 'how' decisions about professional development to those affected, whilst the 'what' question essentially remains controlled by the centralised bureaucracy through the prescription of Ministry priorities.

Table 1 portrays the Fairmont model's cyclic planning and implementation process. The model consists of planning, decision making, and implementation structures

which have responsibility, respectively, for program formulation, adoption and implementation. Table 2 demonstrates the accountability link between each structure and its respective responsibilities.

TABLE 1
THE FAIRMONT MODEL - PROCESS AND FUNCTIONS

TERM 1	TERM 2	TERM 3	TERM 4
Professional development activities implemented			
Needs assessment conducted			
Term 2 Task Group formed	Professional development activities implemented		
Term 3 Task Group formed		Professional development activities implemented	
Term 4 Task Group formed			Professional development activities implemented
			Term 1 Task Group formed
Representative Planning Committee formed	Representative planning committee meets to plan for next year's professional development activities		Next year's professional development plan and budget ratified by Decision Making Group

TABLE 2
THE FAIRMONT MODEL - STRUCTURES AND RESPONSIBILITIES

LINE OF ACCOUNTABILITY	AREAS OF RESPONSIBILITY
TASK GROUP	• Implement professional development plan • Organise conference/seminars
REPRESENTATIVE PLANNING COMMITTEE	• Co-ordination of needs assessments, resources and functions of task groups • Development of the professional development plan for the forthcoming year • Compilation of a list of professional development "ways and means" • Overseeing progress and evaluation of the existing plan • Evaluating the overall effectiveness of the plan
DECISION MAKING GROUP	• Ratify professional development plan and budget

The representative planning committee constitutes the planning structure. As such, it formulates an annual program of professional development activities for the following year. These programs are based upon needs identified by principals at the beginning of the year. Membership of the committee is bi-partite in that it is representative of the employer (Ministry of Education) and employee groups (school administrators).

Membership is sought at the beginning of each year, at the first term principals' conference, and consists of:

- the district superintendent
- one secondary principal
- two primary principals
- one deputy principal (secondary)
- one deputy principal (primary)
- principal education officer

The predominant concern of this committee is to agree upon a mutually beneficial professional development and management training program for the following year. This requires a variety of interrelated functions to be undertaken: establishing the content, delivery vehicle or mode of presentation and the timing of professional development activities; nominating and co-ordinating the involvement of participant groups; identifying necessary resources; and, ensuring appropriate evaluation.

The decision making group, also bi-partite, comprises the district superintendent and school principals. Its main function within the decision making structure is to accept or modify the program developed by the representative planning committee. The planned professional development activities and budget for the forthcoming year are presented to the district superintendent and school principals at the fourth term principals' conference. Principals, as members of the decision making group, are given the opportunity to accept or modify the plan. When accepted the program is returned to the representative planning committee to make any necessary modifications and to delegate the implementation to task groups.

Task groups are responsible for program implementation. They consist of individuals from the particular school administrator group for which the professional development activity is designed. Their specific functions are threefold:

- to initiate and co-ordinate the arrangements for the implementation of professional development activities required by the committee
- to liaise with participants and provider groups or organisations
- to initiate and supervise evaluations of individual programs and activities

The co-ordination and arrangements needed for the smooth running of the model's three structures requires many administrative functions to be performed. It is the responsibility of the executive officer to use the district office's facilities to ensure administrative functions are carried out. The role of the executive officer includes: organising meetings of the representative planning committee; maintaining records of decisions made by the committee; supervising clerical and other tasks required by the committee (not task groups); initiating and co-ordinating arrangements for, and implementation of, some professional development and training activities required by the committee; liaising with relevant participant and provider groups or organisations; and, ensuring payments are made.

Characteristics

The Fairmont model contains bi-partite structures and reflects a rational participative decision making process. To further identify its distinctiveness as a means of providing corporate managerial training to local primary school principals, this section analyses its main characteristics. This involves constructing a framework of professional development models from the relevant literature. The result is a summary of different types of professional development models and their associated advantages and disadvantages which can be compared to the Fairmont model.

Daresh and LaPlant (1984) have identified five generic models of professional development: the traditional model, institutes, competency based training, the academy and networking. A brief outline of the characteristics of each approach will assist in conceptualising the characteristics of the Fairmont model.

The Traditional Model involves school administrators enrolling in university courses. The university provides a set standard and process which, at the point of enrolment, specifies what will be received for time and money invested. This facilitates a certain level of quality control. The disadvantages are that the courses offered tend to service the interests of the university while the quality of courses can vary according to the quality of the university. The learning process is passive and reliant on one-way communication and motivation for enrolling is usually external to the participant. That is, participation may be to satisfy a requirement of some employing body.

Institutes involve short term, topic-specific learning experiences, often referred to as workshops or seminars. The advantages of this model, in addition to its convenience, are that the courses tend to be related to immediate needs and are designed to quickly address needs arising from change in the work place. However, the model has a number of disadvantages: the short-duration of courses inhibit any in-depth treatment of complex issues; the participants are not involved in the setting of objectives, determining content, or the selecting of learning activities; the learning process tends to be passive; and, the quality of courses can vary greatly.

Competency Based Training focuses on the acquisition of a predetermined set of specific skills. It has several advantages: training is directed towards specific skill attainment through a developmental process rather than a sporadic basis; and, motivation to be involved is generally participant-initiated. On the other hand, this model has been criticised for assuming that the completion of a series of training sessions will make participants effective school leaders. Moreover, appropriate

processes and experts to deliver a series of specific skills related training courses are not always readily available.

The Academy model of professional development involves the provision of regular training activities based upon frequent needs assessments by school districts or state education agencies. Academies provide a permanent established structure for addressing needs and are generally controlled by the participants. However, Daresh and LaPlant point out that the learning process is still very much a matter of one-way communication. In addition, external consultants delivering training have limited knowledge of the context in which they are operating while the training tends to focus on the *here and now* and therefore becomes *issues dependent*.

Networking brings individuals together to share concerns on an on-going basis. The benefits include multi-directional communication and total participant involvement, topics based directly on the concerns of participants, and long-term effects resulting from the building of long-term relationships. On the downside, networking can lose its focus on school development and become more of a social gathering. Informality may lead to a lack of continuity for the group with members dropping in and out on a regular basis. As a result, important roles or tasks related to the on-going development of the group may not be identified and carried out.

This brief review of Daresh and Laplant's (1984) research provides the basis for making a composite list of advantageous and disadvantageous characteristics of professional development models against which the Fairmont model can be compared.

Professional development models benefit participants if:

- they provide a means of quality control and assurance
- they specify course objectives
- courses are designed to meet immediate and practical work related issues
- course delivery is convenient
- courses focus on specific skills development
- participation is personally motivating
- courses foster total participant involvement
- participation builds professional relationships

Professional development models are less useful when:

- courses are unrelated to participants' needs
- the quality of courses is variable
- the learning process is passive
- participation is based upon external motivation
- courses have short duration
- courses use external consultants with limited knowledge of the context in which they are operating
- courses are issue dependent
- participation does not build commitment
- there is no follow-up

The Fairmont model exhibits characteristics of both the academy and network model, as described by Daresh and LaPlant (1984). Like the academy model, it provides a rational participative decision making process which creates in-service programs based upon regular needs assessments. The participants are fully involved in the planning and implementing of in-service activities. The model also demonstrates a networking characteristic. The two day conference provides time for collegial support (sharing time) in addition to the traditional professional development provided by an external consultant. In summary, then, the Fairmont model of professional development:

- provides a permanent structure which ensures the training needs of principals are met through the combined features of an academy and network model

- is self directing, in that, it actively engages principals in decision making and implementation through the representative planning committee and task groups

- is needs based

- develops networks by providing specific time during conferences in which colleagues can share and solve mutual concerns formally and informally through multi-directional communication

- provides for external in-put through the inclusion of district and central office personnel and outside consultants in the conference structure to provide updated information and theories

- is personally motivating by developing programs which encourage participant involvement through the addressing of identified needs rather than being part of any certification, degree or employer requirement

- develops ownership and commitment through the active engagement of principals at all levels

The Fairmont model, as a solution to the problem of catering for the professional development and management training needs of local primary school principals, provides the focus of this case study. The next chapter specifies the purpose and significance of this evaluation.

CHAPTER 2
THE PROBLEM

This chapter consists of four sections designed to clarify the focus of the study: a statement of the problem lists the specific questions the evaluation seeks to answer; the limitations imposed on the investigation defines the parameters of the study; the need for evaluations of professional development programs illustrates the broader significance of the thesis; and, the definition of the terms outlines the key concepts used throughout the evaluation.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

According to Scriven (1967), decision makers need formative and summative information to be able to develop and judge a program. Formative information assists planning, structuring, implementing and recycling, while summative information provides a record of what has been completed for the purposes of accountability and final assessment. This study involves systematically gathering information on the Fairmont model by seeking answers to the following question:

> From the view point of meeting the corporate management needs of primary school principals, is there justification for the continued use of the Fairmont model?

In order to address the major question, four subsidiary questions based on Stufflebeam's CIPP [3] (context, input, process and product) model for program evaluation are evaluated:

- What corporate managerial needs does the Fairmont model address and how important and pervasive are they?

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[3] Daniel L. Stufflebeam's CIPP model for program evaluation is a comprehensive systematic approach to inquiry designed to provide administrators with the information needed for rationalised decision making.

- Is there justification for the selection of the I/D/E/A program as a corporate managerial model in preference to the Fairmont model?
- To what extent did any modifications to the Fairmont model affect its capacity to provide for the corporate managerial needs of primary school principals?
- From the viewpoint of the participants, what were the positive and negative outcomes of the Fairmont model in terms of developing corporate managerial skills?

The rationale underlying these four questions can be outlined as follows. It would be difficult to justify the continuation of the Fairmont model if it did not address the needs of the principals. However, if the model was successful in meeting these needs it would still be difficult to justify its continuation if an alternative model could meet them more effectively. If it was shown that the Fairmont was able to meet the principals' professional development needs more effectively than other professional development models, in theory, its continuation would be difficult to justify if it could not be implemented in practice. Finally, if the Fairmont model passed the tests set by the context, input and process evaluations, it would still be difficult to justify its continuation if it simply did not have any positive and demonstrable outcomes for principals.

The rationale underlying the selection of these four questions can be further clarified by a brief account of the benefits to be derived from the different types of evaluation.

The context evaluation, according to Stufflebeam (1983), has a number of constructive uses. In this study it is used to help determine the Fairmont model's capacity to meet the corporate management needs of primary school principals as identified from an analysis of the context within which they work.

The results of such an evaluation can assist decision makers in the district to "convince a funding agency that a proposed project is directed at an area of urgent need" (Stufflebeam, 1983, p.130). It can help determine whether or not changes are

justified. It attempts to identify the problems tackled by the model in addressing corporate management needs. According to Stufflebeam (1983), "Another use comes later, when there is a need to assess what has been accomplished through an improvement project." Consequently, the evaluator is more able to judge the success of outcomes by determining their relationship to the problem and needs identified in the context evaluation.

The input evaluation seeks to determine the justification for the selection of the Fairmont model as the method for addressing corporate management needs. This is done by analysing the model's ability to overcome constraints compared with the I/D/E/A model. More generally, as Stufflebeam (1983, p.130) explains:

> In addition, the records from an input evaluation study help those in authority to be accountable for their choice of one course of action above the other possibilities.

The process evaluation helps to inform others as to how the model operates. In the case of the Fairmont model, the continual interaction with principals, task groups and the representative planning committee, provides feedback on aspects of the model which require modification. It also advises the representative planning committee as to whether or not they are working to the prescribed model. This information can be then reported back to stakeholders to assure them that what was proposed is being carried out and, if not, the reasons for any modifications.

The product evaluation focuses upon the outcomes which affect decisions regarding the recycling or abandonment of the model. The information gathered helps decide whether or not the model has demonstrated a satisfactory performance. This, in turn, can add grounds for the continuation of the model and the making of any necessary modifications.

LIMITATIONS IMPOSED ON THE STUDY

This evaluation does not attempt to document all aspects of the Fairmont model. It is concerned only with those aspects related to the delivery of corporate managerial training to primary school principals in the district. The data were collected during 1989, 1990 and 1991. However, the findings have been limited to the principals' views of the model's 1990 program. Although the Fairmont model applied to all school administrators in the district, this study focuses exclusively on primary school principals. It does not involve primary deputy principals or the principals and deputy principals of district high schools or senior high schools.

As indicated above, the study is conducted within the boundaries of Stufflebeam's program evaluation framework and it concentrates on answering a key question in each of the four CIPP areas. For reasons outlined later in this thesis, limits were placed on two of these areas. The input evaluation compares the Fairmont model with only one other model - the I/D/E/A program of professional development which operated independently of the Fairmont model throughout 1990 and involved a large percentage of the primary school principals. Secondly, the product evaluation only uses the principals' perceptions of the positive and negative outcomes of the model. The time frame for the research did not allow for an in-depth inquiry into changes in participant's behaviour through observation or interviews with the school personnel.

The final limitation imposed upon the study relates to the relationship between the researcher and the Fairmont model. From 1987, the researcher worked in the district as the education officer and a deputy principal of a large primary school. During this time he was the primary school deputy principal representative on the Fairmont model's planning committee. It could be argued that this situation had the capacity to create a degree of 'over-familiarisation' with the conditions and the program which, in turn, can lead to bias, inaccurate findings or even a tendency to treat important factors

as ordinary or everyday events. The steps taken to reduce these risks are outlined in chapter four. Having acknowledged the questions to be answered and the limitations of the evaluation, the next section identifies the broader significance of the evaluation.

THE NEED FOR EVALUATION OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

The literature indicates a need for reviews of professional development for school administrators to be more in-depth. Wimpelberg (1984) contends that previous research has highlighted the importance of the role of principals in promoting school effectiveness. However, few studies have attempted to determine the merit of content or delivery methods in professional development activities for school administrators (Daresh and La Plant, 1984; Reece, 1984; McLellan, 1988).

Daresh (1987), Van Der Bogart (1987) and Print (1988) have indicated the increase in in-service activities now available to school administrators. They argue that studies of these approaches have been descriptive. In their review of the literature on professional development, Daresh and La Plant (1984) explain that research in the field consisted predominantly of descriptive surveys which rely primarily on the questionnaire for data gathering. They recommend, when proposing a research agenda, the use of "multi-faceted descriptive methodologies in which strengths and shortcomings of each approach are verified and validated" (Daresh and La Plant, 1984, p.21).

Stufflebeam's CIPP approach provides a comprehensive framework required to verify and validate the strengths and shortcomings of the Fairmont model. As the professional development market continues to grow with the introduction of the Training Guarantee levy and the impact of government initiatives directed at workplace reform, an evaluative study will provide government and non-government schools with an analysis of the merits of a professional development approach.

There is a need to add to the body of knowledge regarding self-directing needs-based projects, such as the Fairmont model. Storey (1987), noted the major strength of the in-service program he studied as its self-directing nature, which he believes could become, in the long term, one of its major weaknesses. Moreover, Leithwood (1984) points out there is the possibility that the content of in-service courses can become solely 'issues dependent' and have little to do with student outcomes and school improvement. Both of these examples highlight the on-going need to evaluate the processes and outcomes of professional development programs.

The evaluation of professional development in terms of developing corporate managerial skills is of particular interest to policy writers and educational institutions in the current climate of increased skills acquisition. Since the introduction of the Report of the Australian Education Council Review - Finn Report (July, 1991) and the Report of the Committee to advise the Australian Education Council and the Ministers of Vocational Education, Employment and Training on employment-related Key Competencies for postcompulsory education and training - Mayer Report (September, 1992) and the focus of the National Project on the Quality of Teaching and Learning there has been an increased emphasis on obtaining information on the development of competencies in the teaching profession. A clearer understanding of specific management skills and functions will identify not only the new principal's training curriculum but also the basic criteria for performance appraisal.

The aim of this chapter has been to provide the focus and reason for this evaluative case study. It has outlined the questions, the parameters and the significance of the evaluation. Prior to reviewing the literature for the primary purpose of developing a corporate managerial framework, this chapter concludes with a glossary of terms which are used throughout the evaluation.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Accountability: this concept has been the target of much debate in public sector management. Its definition is interwoven with terms, such as, responsibility, instrumentalism and control. In this study accountability is described as being answerable for 'results'. In 'line management' the manager is accountable for the success and failures of the unit (Stoner et al., 1985, pp.364-365).

Bi-partite: two-party representation in decision making. In this case study the two parties are the employers and employees.

Corporate management: involves the principal in the efficient and effective management of the school by:

- Planning - the establishment of a cyclic pattern of goal setting and prioritising. Plans include the strategies for the achievement of goals.
- Organising - the creating of work patterns for the effective implementation of strategic plans.
- Leading - developing a commitment for organisational goals and the implementation of plans.
- Controlling - monitoring the use of resources and the achievement of objectives and, where necessary, taking corrective action.
- Accounting for the effectiveness of the school.

Corporate plan: a cyclic planning process involving the identification and prioritisation of goals, writing and implementation of strategic plans and the review of outcomes.

Decentralisation: as a combination of delegation and devolution, this term refers to the degree to which authority has been delegated and decision making has been devolved down or away from the top or centre of the organisation (Stoner et al., 1985, p.370).

Delegation: the formal transfer of authority and responsibility to another individual to carry out all the functions related to the completion of a task.

Devolution: the shifting of decision making regarding how to achieve organisational goals to the lowest appropriate level within the organisation (Wanna et al., 1992, p.80).

Effectiveness: the achievement of pre-determined outcomes or end results as opposed to the means or methods of achievement.

Efficiency: the means of maximising the most valued outcomes from a given level of inputs.

Equity: "fairness and equality in the provision and outcomes of services as well as to fairness in the distribution of benefits from society and economy" (Reforming the Public Sector, 1990, p.7).

Evaluation: "the gathering of information for the purpose of making a judgement" (Beare et al., 1989, p.148).

Goal: the main or prime purpose of the organisation. A goal is a high level of attainment achieved through the measurable success of lower order objectives. Stoner et al. (1985, p.118) describe 'goals' as the organisation's purpose, mission and objectives.

Industrial Democracy: the process of participation by the workforce in workplace decision making. There are two types of industrial democracy, namely: workplace or participative industrial democracy and representative industrial democracy. Workplace or participative industrial democracy is the process of increasing the control of individuals over everyday issues for the purpose of increasing worker satisfaction and efficiency. Representative industrial democracy involves workers in workplace decision making through representation (Reforming the Public Sector, 1990, pp.8-10; Stoner et al., 1985, pp.373-375).

Inputs: the human, financial and other resources needed to achieve pre-determined outcomes.

Management: "the process of planning, organising, leading and controlling the efforts of organisation members and using all other organisational resources to achieve stated organisational goals" (Stoner et al., 1985, p.8).

Management Information Systems (MIS): a "formal method of making available to management the accurate and timely information necessary to facilitate the decision-making process and enable the organisation's planning, control and operational functions to be carried out effectively" (Stoner et al., 1985, p.785).

Mission Statements: a statement by the individuals of the organisation for the individuals of the organisation to focus their attention upon their prime purpose or function. It specifies for them where their energy should go by clarifying what they will and will not be responsible or accountable for achieving (Beare et al., 1989, pp.215-216).

Needs Assessment: a qualitative and/or quantitative assessment of the range of needs of a particular client group.

Objectives: the difference between objectives and mission statement is that objectives are mainly for an external audience whereas the latter are for an internal audience (Beare et al., 1989, pp.215-216). Objectives are the specific measurable outcome statements of a program or sub-program. "An 'objective' is a target to be reached if the organisation is to achieve its goals" (Stoner et al., 1985, p.119).

Participation: this term is linked to industrial democracy. It refers to the process of decision making by the workforce in the workplace.

Performance Indicators: pre-determined sign-posts which are intended to highlight the extent to which programs are achieving the desired results.

Private Sector: any organisation which is privately owned or controlled. Its key outcomes focus upon its own financial growth and position in the market place. Consequently, its decision making is determined by market forces as opposed to the public interest.

Public Sector: any organisation owned or controlled by the Commonwealth, state or local government. Its key outcomes focus upon the general good of the community and are determined by public decision making as opposed to market forces (Emy and Hughes, 1991, p.379).

Productivity: the ratio between inputs of resources and the outputs of goods and services. The higher the outputs and the lower the inputs the higher the ratio and therefore the productivity. An efficient and effective organisation is productive because it maximises outputs whilst minimising inputs.

Program management and budgeting (PMB): PMB has been defined by the Commonwealth publication: *Reforming the Public Sector* as "the development of clearly stated objectives, organisation of programs around those objectives, the collection of information to assess progress toward objectives and formal evaluation of programs...A key element of program budgeting is the way in which it links planning, budgeting, implementation and evaluation in one continuous management cycle" (1990, pp.38-39).

Restructuring: economic and political changes designed to maintain the standard of living by shaking Australians out of the complacency associated with the 'Lucky Country' and 'riding on the sheeps' back' philosophies into a more internationally competitive clever country.

Strategic Planning: the formalised, long-range planning process used to define and achieve organisational goals (Stoner et al., 1985, p.120).

Structural Efficiency Principle: this term refers to the national wage case decision taken by the Industrial Relations Commission on August, 1988. It demonstrated a fundamental shift for the commission in determining wages from the gap between prices and wages to the relationship between wages and skills, training and responsibility (Emy and Hughes, 1991, p.176).

Tri-partite: three-party representation in decision making, namely: the employers, employees and the government.

Due to its corporate managerial focus, the evaluation of the Fairmont model, holds a level of significance which extends beyond the Fairmont district. As a result of this focus, the conceptual framework associated with this evaluation requires analysis of a large volume of research in the field of management.

SECTION TWO
CONCEPTUAL AND METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORKS

CHAPTER 3

THE PRINCIPAL: MANAGER OR INSTRUCTIONAL LEADER?

Section two is concerned with establishing the conceptual and methodological frameworks. It does so through an extensive review and analysis of the literature. The section begins with an examination of the debate on the role of effective principals. This is followed by a review of economic rationalism, public sector reform and effective schools as underlying factors which have led to a shift from bureaucratic administration to corporate managerialism in education. The section concludes with an in-depth analysis of management and organisational literature. It compares corporate managerial structures and functions to bureaucratic practices in order to develop a corporate managerial framework for analysing the data related to the evaluation of the Fairmont model.

Organisational restructuring within the Western Australian education system has raised the question of whether the principal is a manager or an instructional leader. As such, it tends to assume an 'either - or' answer. That is, is the principal a maintaining agent of a centralised system (manager) or someone who determines the educational purpose and direction of their organisational unit (instructional leader)? As Sergiovanni, Burlingame, Coombs and Thurston (1987, pp.72-73) explain:

> ...the professional administrator is likely to view her or his role as that of one who finds out what the consumers want from the school and who delivers educational services accordingly. The educational leader, by contrast, is very much concerned with the issue of purpose and direction.

However, there is no clear, precise answer. Instead, the question simply highlights the tensions related to the locus of educational control which arose in the 1980s as management and organisational change clashed with the findings of effective schools research. In other words, the education systems of Western nations were being

simultaneously subjected to both the democratic decentralising trends advocated by effective schools research and the centralising demands of governments attempting to regain control over educational outcomes (Harman, 1990, p.68; Deer, 1990; and, Caldwell, 1990, p.3).

In line with Edmonds (1982) claim that schools do make a difference to student learning, the literature on effective schools indicates that a school is more likely to be effective when it maintains a clear articulated instructional focus, develops and uses systematic evaluation and assessment, expects all students to learn well, maintains an orderly and safe environment, and has a strong educator as its principal (Beare et al., 1989, pp.65-69).

The effective schools literature has continued to reaffirm the need to decentralise educational decision making to the local level. It maintains that excellence in education is achievable when the power to make decisions resides with those responsible for implementation. More specifically, it suggests that schools will focus on the important central issue of teaching and learning and avoid trying to become a panacea for all of society's problems when they are responsible for identifying the instructional focus and evaluating and assessing outcomes.

At the same time as the effective schools movement flagged the importance of decentralising educational decision making, countries throughout the Western world were facing economic hardships. This economic situation saw the politicising of education in terms of perceiving it as a means of overcoming economic problems. However, over time, governments came to lack confidence in the ability of their educational systems to deal with increasing unemployment and lagging international economic competitiveness was evident (Berkeley, 1991, p.65). Consequently, economic and political pressure to take control of educational outcomes grew, generally, by introducing new managerial and organisational patterns. For example:

> ...(the) management of education became engulfed in the massive
> business administration tidal wave, driven by economic rationality,
> economic instrumentalism, a movement to the conservative right of
> politics and the imperialistic demands of those powerful bureaucrats
> and politicians who had become obsessed by trading imbalances, by
> the new international economic order and by the onset of the post-
> industrial state (Beare et al., 1989, pp.34-35).

Thus conflicting expectations developed between members of the effective schools
movement on the one hand - believing the pathway to excellence rested with the
instructional leadership exercised by principals in a decentralised system (Beare et al.,
1989, p.69) - and political, community and organisational pressure groups on the
other hand which required principals to concentrate on issues not directly related to
the school's teaching program. Political demands for cost efficient and accountable
schools; the growing desire by the community for increased involvement and
participation in educational decision making; and, the increasing size and complexity
of schools as organisations have emphasised budgeting, planning, decision making and
human resource management issues as prime functions of principalship (Bredeson,
1985; Strong and McVeain, 1986; and, Ploghoft and Perkins, 1988). According to
Goodlad (1978), however, this plethora of management issues distracts the principal's
attention from the prime function of schooling - teaching and learning.

Locally, the question as to whether an effective principal is a manager or instructional
leader emerged via the introduction of *Better Schools* which opened the way to
structural changes to the Western Australian education system and, as a result,
increased the principal's need to manage the school site. According to one Ministry
officer:

> ...the role of manager is seen to be competing with the role of
> educational leader for the principal's time. Principals are frustrated in
> applying their educational wisdom and expertise to improve the
> learning environment by the demands to manage money, the people
> and the site (Hamilton, 1990, p.7).

Overcoming this level of frustration requires a reconceptualisation of the role of the principal. That is, given the managerial and organisational imperatives and the need to enhance educational effectiveness through decentralisation, a more conciliatory position regarding the 'either - or' question is required. As Boyd (1990, p.29) observes:

> Unlike freestanding private schools, public schools are not independent islands. They are, and must remain, part of a larger system servicing broad social interests. To accomplish their purposes, they need a balanced combination of autonomy and coordinated control.

Berkeley refers to Beare's belief that corporate managerialism has the dual capacity to accommodate the effective schools' cry for decentralised autonomous decision making as well as the economic and political demand for more centralised control of educational outcomes. He points out that corporate managerialism:

> ...can be simultaneously tightly controlled yet free wheeling, locally autonomous yet centrally cohesive, using the benefits of size but operating like small business (1990, p.207).

This version of corporate managerialism in education sees the principal as both a manager and an instructional leader. The loose-tight nature of the corporate structure requires the principal to maintain the overall direction and resourcing constraints established by the chief executive whilst exercising leadership at the local level. Obviously, principals in this organisational environment cannot be simply leaders or managers. They need to be able to maintain patterns and regulations as well as make necessary adjustments and change according to the demands of various situations (Sergiovanni et al., 1987). Chapman and Stronge both believe the dichotomy between management and leadership is a false one. They argue:

> There is the need for the linking of management and leadership, a linking of new and visionary ideas with the operational tools, methods and apparatus to realise them - a linking, in other words, of the quantitative and qualitative concerns of schooling (Chapman, 1990).

The proper issue of school improvement and the role of the principal is not middle management versus instructional leadership; rather, the focus should be managing for effective schools (Stronge, 1990, p.1).

The pursuit of excellence requires effective principals to be attentive to both curriculum matters and issues pertaining to planning, resourcing, monitoring and evaluating. Consequently, skills in management techniques are of equal importance to those of instructional leadership. Given this scenario, the literature review aims to analyse managerialism for the purpose of developing the framework needed to evaluate the extent to which the Fairmont model caters for the corporate managerial needs of local primary school principals. At times it might be asked: what has all this to do with teaching and learning or, for that matter, education in general? In response we can turn to Beare et al. (1989, p.69) who argue that the development of effective schools requires principals "to become quite sophisticated about organisational structures and about some of the recent thinking which has produced concepts like corporate management".

The need for a corporate managerial framework is based upon the shifting nature of the principal's managerial functions from those of bureaucratic administrator to corporate manager in order to accommodate principles of economic rationalism characteristic of the private sector. Table 3 represents a linear view of the influential factors which have shaped the management functions of principals. It is not intended to represent a strict cause and effect relationship. However, it does conceptualise the nature of corporate managerialism which emerges from a review of the literature. The remaining chapters in section two will address each of the components in Table 3 in order to construct a conceptual framework for the evaluation of the Fairmont model.

TABLE 3
DEVELOPMENT OF CORPORATE MANAGERIALISM

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                    ┌─────────────────────┐
                    │ Economic Rationalism │
                    └─────────────────────┘
                       ╱              ╲
          ┌─────────────────────┐   ┌──────────────────┐
          │ Public Sector Reform │   │ Effective Schools │
          └─────────────────────┘   └──────────────────┘
                       ╲              ╱
               ┌──────────────────────────────┐
               │ Principal as Corporate Manager │
               └──────────────────────────────┘
              ╱         │            │         ╲
    ┌──────────┐ ┌────────────┐ ┌─────────┐ ┌────────────┐
    │ Planning │ │ Organising │ │ Leading │ │ Controlling │
    └──────────┘ └────────────┘ └─────────┘ └────────────┘
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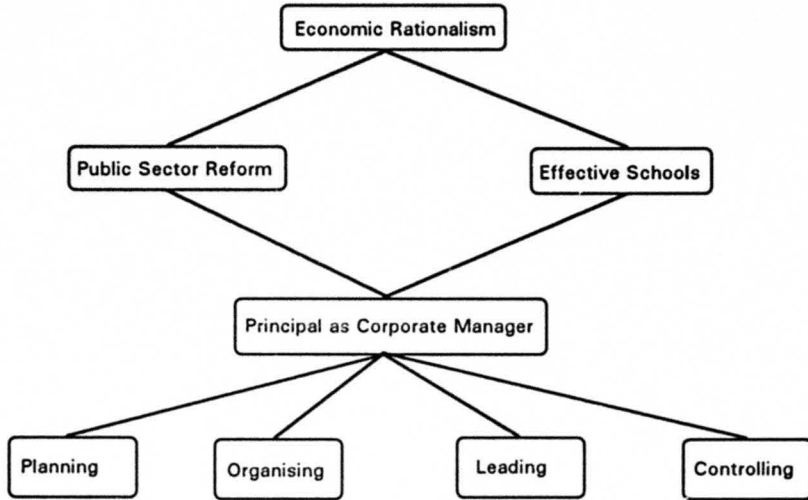
CHAPTER 4
ECONOMIC RATIONALISM

Economic rationalism has been the dynamic force behind the structural reform movement in education (Robertson, 1990, pp.220-221; Sergiovanni, et al., 1987, p.9; and Chapman, 1990). It regards education as an investment in the skills development of individuals with the dividend being increased productivity and international economic competitiveness. It maintains that the benefits of education are 'individual' and the sum of the 'individual' benefits equals the social benefits (Preston, 1989, pp.18-19; and Porter, 1990, p.3). In talking about economic rationalists, Pusey (1991, p.35) comments that:

> ...the education system [became] defined by those who saw it as a problem principally, or solely, as a means of producing human capital and, certainly, only in terms of its relation to the economic system.

Some educational studies that demonstrate the effectiveness of school operations over increased resources have provided ammunition for those seeking to limit capital expenditure in education (McCollow, 1989, pp.10-11). Fired with this argument, economic rationalists have broken the long established link between resource levels and standards (Comino, 1989, p.15). They argue, for example, that the 'means' of employing more reading specialists for achieving the 'end' of improving reading standards can no longer be justified without quantification of student outcomes. In this case the principal's role is to manage the school's operations so performance is monitored and evaluated in order to account for resource allocation and expenditure. A type of resource agreement now exists between the central office and the school. This has given rise to the belief that 'X' number of dollars will be provided if the school can demonstrate effective utilisation of these resources (Beare, 1989; and, Robertson, 1990, pp.222-223).

Having suggested that economic rationalism has been a major influence upon educational reform it is necessary now to analyse the concept of economic rationalism in more detail. Essentially, economic rationalism can be described as a platform promoting not just a market economy but a market society. According to Pusey (1991), the discourse of economic rationalism has been responsible for recasting the relation between state and civil society. In other words, economic rationalism has supported advocates of the 'New Right' in their efforts to reshape public sector agencies from large controlling bureaucracies to responsive corporate styled organisations.

The language of economic rationality has been the political discourse of the 1980s. Since the recession of the early 1980s, it has produced catch cries such as 'doing more with less', 'working smarter not harder' and 'optimum use of scarce resources'. Political activities and policies have been couched in the rational economic terms of selecting the best means by which to achieve quantifiable economic end results. In examining the literature on the nature and influence of economic rationalism, the review will consider first its theoretical dimension and then its ideological dimension.

THE THEORETICAL DIMENSION

The theoretical dimension of economic rationalism is based on a particular perception of the economy and society consistent with the theory of classical liberal economics. It embraces a view of supply and demand as the natural regulating forces in a free and competitive market place and society as the primary unit of production which promotes 'rational economic man' as the driving wheel in the production process.

Economic rationalism dates back to the industrial revolution. During this period of cultural change writers such as Adam Smith conceptualised an emerging industrial capitalism in terms of a rational liberal theory of economics. Simply stated, this

theory described the competitive market principle of supply and demand in scientific law-like terms. These two forces, dubbed 'the invisible hand', were conceptualised as natural objective self-regulating checks that controlled the economic activities of self-interested individuals within the market (Emy and Hughes, 1988, p.115).

Historically, the theory of classic liberal economics was a means to understanding an economy moving from a traditional agricultural base to one founded on urbanised industrial capitalism. However, modern economic rationalism extends this theory by applying market principles to as many aspects of social life as possible (Emy and Hughes, 1988, p.105). Thus, a clearer understanding of economic rationalism can be developed by illustrating how, as a theory, it depicts society.

Society, according to the economic rationalists, is comprised of self-interested individuals hungry to maximise their personal gains. This narrow view of human behaviour, lacking in altruism, gave rise to the term 'rational economic man' and was described in positive terms by classical liberal economists. The human traits of greed and egocentricity, condemned in religious circles as immoral, are highlighted as characteristics to be encouraged in order to increase the productive capacity of society.

Economic rationalism holds that 'rational economic man' in a 'free' competitive market will choose the most efficient means of resource utilisation in order to maximise gain. Further to this, Dyke (1981, pp.142-143) explains that 'rational economic man' will ultimately foster the most efficient use of any given set of initial resources. This perspective of the individual implies that all benefits are economic benefits and the sum of the individual benefits produces the overall social benefit.

The concept of 'rational economic man' is supported by the theory of rational expectation, which describes *rationality* as making the best decision based upon

available data. This theory assumes that 'rational economic man' will not repeat economic mistakes because of the desire to maximise gains (Gordon, 1990, p.197). [4] The weakness of this assumption is that it ignores human values. People may continue to make poor economic decisions based upon values, beliefs or social need. For example, Pusey (1991, pp.154-155) maintained that:

> Formal rationality is by no means a 'value free' and innocent means of creating greater coherence, consistency, accountability and commensurability of reference....Those who drive this process of rationalisation believe in it and deploy it very powerfully as an evaluative framework that throws a difficult onus of justification on anyone who seeks to oppose them with defences premised on social needs or on values...

Such a view of human nature illustrates an economically rational belief in individual capitalism as opposed to collective socialism. The attempts of socialist governments to overcome disadvantage through welfare benefits is described by economic rationalists as 'evil' because it interferes with the natural balance of the market place. This Darwinian view of economics maintains that a natural free environment fosters competition which ensures that only those individuals who work harder and smarter will succeed (survival of the fittest). As a result, it provides a natural stimulant to efficiency and effectiveness (productivity).

Society, in the eyes of the economic rationalist, is a voluntary system of production held together through the competitive free market forces of supply and demand. In other words, social order is regulated and maintained through agreements and legal contracts between individual self-interested economic agents, as they attempt to maximise their personal gain, and not through direct government intervention. Thus, the government's function is restricted to the development of a market society by maintaining the competitive space for economic interaction as opposed to direct participation through ownership.

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[4] For a more indepth explanation of Robert Lucas's rational expectations theory, see Gordon, Robert, J., (1990), *Macroeconomics*. London, Scott, Foresman and Co., pp. 197-208.

The economic rationalist's perspective of society is narrow. As a theory, it sees society only in economic terms without acknowledging other factors which give rise to voluntary human interaction, such as personal growth and the development of human potential. Consequently, economic rationalists aim to re-organise society so as to conform, as closely as possible, to market principles. That is, economic rationalism is a doctrine of minimised protectionism, de-regulation and limited government regulation and participation in activities beyond the provision of defence, law and basic social welfare (Davis et al., 1988, p.37). Therefore the purpose of society, as the primary unit of production, is to enhance productivity (efficiency and effectiveness) in order to meet the increasing demand for a higher standard of living from an ever expanding population.

In summary, the theoretical dimension of economic rationalism has highlighted its link to the theory of classical liberal economics. It perceives the economy as an environment controlled by the natural forces of supply and demand and argues that society needs to be exposed, as closely as possible, to these elements. This will, in turn, stimulate the activity of 'rational economic man' who, when free to maximise personal gain, will work hard and make optimal use of limited resources and, in so doing, will enhance society's overall productivity.

What, then, has been the response of governments to the concept of economic rationalism? To answer this question, the next section on the ideological dimension considers the impact of the 'New Right' as a coalition of government pressure groups who have pushed economic rationalism [5] as a means of affecting government policy at the national and state level.

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[5] Emy and Hughes (1988, p.106): "The New Right is really a loose coalition of pressure groups and organisations united by their hostility to *big government* and their belief in a free market."

THE IDEOLOGICAL DIMENSION

The 'New Right' demonstrates its belief in the wisdom of economic rationalism by advocating smaller government, micro economic reform, privatisation, market orientation and low inflation (Wood, 1991, p.27). It has heralded 'belt tightening', 'the rights of the individual', 'choice', 'competition' and 'a free market place'. Consequently, the 'New Right' can be described as an ideological mix of conservative values, such as, self-help, self-improvement and thrift with a revitalisation of classical liberal economics as a reaction against high inflation and the increasing trend towards paternalism and statism or rule by officials (Smart, 1987, p.19; Emy and Hughes, 1991, p.191). [6]

Ideologically, the 'New Right' opposes collective social welfare and supports individualism and the application of market principles to all aspects of social policy. The analysis, then, of the ideological dimension of economic rationalism examines the evidence of the 'New Right's' desire for a smaller, market oriented public sector.

The 'New Right' has promoted a fundamental shift in the economic philosophy of Western Europe away from the "Keynesian/socialist model of big government and the ever-expanding welfare State" (Wood, 1991, p.27). For example, it describes government programs involving welfare benefits or cost subsidies for the poor or isolated, as a means of addressing social disadvantage, as inefficient and ineffective (non-productive). It seeks to have them overtaken by a more general acceptance of stringent means testing and the 'user pays' principle (Wilenski, 1988, p.214; Wanna et al., 1992, pp.68-69). It argues for less government intervention in the economic environment by promoting what is 'natural' is best (Whitwell, 1990, p.129). And it strongly contests the wisdom of Keynesian economics, which encourages governments

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[6] Emy and Hughes (1988) chapter 4 explains how 'New' in the words 'New Right' refers to the efforts to revive and combine conservative values with the principles of classical liberal political economy.

to pour money into flagging economies as a means of stimulating productivity, by pointing to the high inflation and unemployment levels of the 1970s and early 1980s as indicators of its dismal performance.

The persuasiveness of the 'New Right's' economic rationalism proved politically powerful in Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) member countries throughout the 1980s. The same applies in countries such as the USA, Great Britain and New Zealand. For example, in the USA one of the major features of Reagan's successful campaign for the presidency was his attacks on big government and his commitment to reduced federal taxation (Sawer, 1982, p.8). On both sides of the Atlantic, 'New Right' pressure groups have been successful in attacking big government. Throughout the 1980s they accused large government bureaucracies of being inefficient, ineffective and slow to respond to societal and consumer demands (Cooper, 1988, p.284). These attacks had an effect. As countries struggled to remain economically competitive at an international level, the move to reduce the size of non-productive and over controlling bureaucracies grew in strength.

The 'New Right' has also created pressure for the introduction of private business management practices into the public sector. For example, throughout the 1980s 'New Right' pressure groups within the Australian Treasury, proclaimed the efficiency of private sector management practices and the self-regulation and discipline of the free market (Whitwell, 1990). This emphasis has seen a move towards devolution of decision making and private business management practices in the public sector.

The next chapter of the literature review analyses *decentralisation* and *new managerialism* as part of the reforms within the public sector. At this point, it is should be acknowledged that the public sector, in addition to promoting administrative changes, has implemented social and human resource reforms which have their own

agenda of demands and directions.   These additional reforms have often conflicted with, and contradicted, managerialism (Yeatman, 1987, p.341; Emy and Hughes, 1991, p.416).   While acknowledging this aspect, the parameters of this thesis limit its capacity to explore these arguments.

CHAPTER 5
PUBLIC SECTOR REFORM

Three major factors have characterised managerial reform in the Australian public sector over the past decade. Firstly, as part of an effort to restructure the national economy, the Federal government has focused its attention on the efficiency and effectiveness of public sector management practices. Secondly, the Federal government has been unable to raise taxation to the level needed to pay for the quality of public service delivery demanded by the electorate. And thirdly, many Australian states throughout the 1980s operated under governments which sought to implement definite ideas on how the public sector should operate. In general, governments at both the state and national level adopted a philosophical stance which embraced a need to improve international economic competitiveness, a desire to get the best from limited tax dollars, and firm ideas on how the public sector should operate and sought to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of public sector management (Emy and Hughes, 1991, p.405).

Increasingly, public sector management has been exposed to 'management by objectives' and the search for 'efficiency', 'value for money', and 'effectiveness' through budgets and performance indicators (Wanna et al., 1992, p.11). According to Wanna et al. (1992) this new orientation has caused a dilemma for public services founded on 'accountability' and committed to 'equity', 'social justice' and 'equal opportunity'. The dilemma revolves around the question: can an organisation committed to these social goals, realistically be 'efficient' and 'effective'?

An explicit part of the Federal agenda has been the improvement of management practices in general. In other words, the government's desire to restructure the national economy has focused attention on the management practices of both the private and public sector. According to Emy and Hughes (1990, p.405):

...most noticeable at the Commonwealth level, has been an explicit link between improving public sector management and re-structuring the national economy.

The traditional bureaucratic model of public sector administration was perceived as inefficient and unable to deal with Australia's economic problems. An alternative needed to be found (Emy and Hughes, 1990, p.405). Senior public service administrators, themselves, advocated the transformation of bureaucracies into corporations through the application of technical management practices to public administration (Sinclair, 1989, p.382). A decline in available tax revenue meant the traditional Keynesian solution of more resources as a means of stimulating the economy was impractical.

The decade of the 1980s was marked by the political accord between the government and the trade unions. This agreement saw disciplined wage constraints, the introduction of the structural efficiency principle and a reduction in taxation to pre-1973 levels (Pusey, 1991, pp.32-33).

Since the mid 1970s the Australian public service has been characterised by reforms which were often precipitated by official inquiries into its functions and operations. Over this period of time the 1976 Coombs Report (Royal Commission into Australian Government Administration) and the 1983 Reid Report (Federal Government Administration) recommended structural and administrative changes to the public sector. For example, the Coombs Report, commissioned in 1974 and released in 1976, identified weaknesses in public sector administration and recommended a shift to participative democracy and participative management (Beringer et. al., 1986, p.12; Pusey, 1991, p.165). Corporate management, as the strategy for reforming the public sector, emerged in 1984 from the Financial Management Improvement Program (FMIP).

Considine (1990) argues that public sector administration in Australia has moved from a service format to a product format thus narrowly defining output within an economic framework. This, in turn, increased the demand for plans and reports (Sinclair, 1989, p.383). It introduced public service administration to *new managerialism*, which Yeatman (1987, p.340) describes as technical and dominated by economic considerations. The move to *new managerialism* focused public service administration on the efficient, effective and economic management of both human and financial capital (Yeatman, 1990, p.14).

At the national level the trend towards *decentralisation* and *new managerialism* has been a major part of Australian social policy (Considine, 1990, p.166; Yeatman, 1987, p.340; Sinclair, 1989). Smart (1987, p.20) points out that:

> President Reagan, noted for his attacks on big Government, and Prime Minister Malcolm Frazer were clone-like in their conservative response to the world wide economic crisis of the mid 1970s.

In March 1983 the Hawke socialist government replaced Frazer. Surprisingly, this did not bring about a dynamic shift from the conservative politics of the defeated Liberal government as would have been expected. With reference to the Hawke government, Smart (1987, p.26) claims:

> His fairly conservative cabinet - perhaps more significantly right wing than the Federal Parliamentary Labor Party Caucus with which it not infrequently clashes - has read well the more conservative mood of the great mass of the Australian electorate, and has pragmatically tailored its policies accordingly.

The trends towards *decentralisation* and *new managerialism* have not been restricted to national level policy making. In Western Australia, policy making at the central level has swung in the same direction. For example:

...in the last ten years there has been a reviewing of the quality and cost effectiveness of the delivery of public services.   In Western Australia these took the form of a functional review throughout the 1980s.   These reviews have all assumed that the management structures and systems of organisations are the key factors in improving the delivery of public services. In Western Australia we have observed significant changes to the management structures across the whole public sector, including those of the ministry. (Nadebaum, 1990, p.3)

At the state level, the Burke Labor Government, which came to office in February, 1983, as did Hawke's Federal Labor Government, became 'right wing' in its approach to social policy.   Its desire to pursue the trends of *decentralisation* and *new managerialism* in the public sector is outlined in the White Paper: *Managing Change in the Public Sector - A Statement of the Government's Position*, released in 1986.

The White Paper advocated a need to *decentralise* the centralised decision making processes of the public sector (Burke, 1986, p.7).   In doing so it signalled the government's desire to devolve decision making to those with knowledge and understanding of local conditions and issues. The need for local involvement was not seen as a means of making better decisions but as a technical means of achieving outcomes. Production is said to be enhanced when those responsible for outcomes are committed to them. The White Paper claimed that self-esteem and productivity are easier to maintain when those affected by planning contribute to and identify with changes (Burke, 1986, p.17).

Decentralisation through local participation sought to make the public sector more responsive. It also regarded participation as a planning strategy for achieving results. In the White Paper, the government's views were expressed thus:

Effective change requires the active participation of those who must manage it and those who are affected by it, not in determining what the ultimate goals should be, but in determining how they can best be achieved (Burke, 1986, p.17).

Public sector reform, as proposed in the White Paper, was not restricted to *decentralisation*.   It defined changes to administrative functions.   It supported Considine's view that public sector administration was changing from a service to a product format by pointing out that good management was about achieving goals rather than simply the servicing of functions (Burke, 1986, p.12).

The White Paper described management as an outcomes oriented process. This new orientation for public sector administration emphasised efficiency and effectiveness. Public sector managers were described as accountable for results rather than just ensuring correct procedures. They were no longer expected to just do things right but to do the right thing right (Burke, 1986, p.7). To achieve this goal managers were to be 'free' to manage.

The autonomy of *new managerialism* centres on ways and means. Managers were to be liberated from punitive rules and regulations that inhibited the development of creative solutions needed to *do more with less* and which stood in the way of allowing *managers to manage*. Management was seen as establishing processes and operations for achieving government policy objectives within resourcing constraints (Burke, 1986, p.5). The shift from micro to macro-controls re-orientated public sector administration from traditional concerns with procedural controls to outcomes. It reinforced the need for management to meet pre-determined performance standards (objectives) on time and within budget.

The White Paper explained that *new managerialism* not only accounted for efficient and effective economic management of financial resources but also human resources. It described *effective managers* as goal-oriented individuals with the capacity to achieve organisational ends through others. In bringing about change, managers were to involve others as a means of developing a commitment to goals.

The effective management of human resources uses organisational goals to review performance. The White Paper outlines monitoring and evaluating performance as important functions which need to become a normal process of management. Regular monitoring and reviews control poor performance by ensuring performance feedback. From the state government's perspective, the review mechanism was an important means of obtaining "the greatest returns from its human investment..." (Burke, 1986, p.10).

Public reform, at the state and national level, has maintained an economic imperative. The explicit rationale behind *decentralisation* and *new managerialism* has been to increase efficiency, effectiveness and accountability in the public sector. The strategy in bringing about these reforms has been to reduce bureaucracy through macro economic policy. The evidence from the literature illustrates the link between the public sector reform agenda and economic rationalism which seeks to reduce the size and role of government whilst increasing efficiency, effectiveness and accountability by introducing private sector management practices into the public sector (Weller and Lewis, 1989, p.1).

CHAPTER 6
EFFECTIVE SCHOOLS

As a public sector organisation, education has not been excluded from the political desire for efficient, effective and accountable management practices. The political desire to deliver quality education without increasing the tax burden demonstrates the application of economic rationalism to education (Dawkins, 1989, p.29). In addition, Ashenden (1990, p.11) suggest that government decisions, such as the Industrial Relations Commission's *structural efficiency principle* has had a direct impact upon the way schools are to be staffed, organised and managed. The *Better Schools* reforms, which were flagged by the Beazley Report (1979), stemmed directly from the Government's functional review into the operations of the public sector, were an attempt to unite economic rationalism with current thinking about how good schools should operate (Angus, 1990, p.5). In this context, it is pertinent to analyse educational research on how effective schools should be managed.

Studies have demonstrated that schools do make a difference to student performance and outcomes. School practices and characteristics have more of an affect on improving student achievement than increases in resources (Rutter, 1979; Brookover and Lozette, 1979; Phi Delta Kappa, 1980). Effective schools literature has identified several management processes which influence student achievement. Parent and teacher participation in school decision making, teacher responsibility for program implementation and cyclic planning and evaluating of school programs have been described as school management practices which enhance student outcomes. For example, the findings from studies conducted by Bossert et al. (1982), Hall et al. (1984), Synder and Johnson (1985), and the Illinios Administrator's Academy (1986) conclude that effective principals develop the following management patterns: planning of goals; promoting collaborative decision making; guiding, supporting and empowering others; organising and coordinating educational programs; and,

monitoring and evaluating school productivity. This evidence provides the broad structure for this chapter which attempts to identify effective school management practices.

PARENT AND TEACHER PARTICIPATION IN SCHOOL DECISION MAKING

The devolution of responsibility for decision making in education is premised on the belief that the best decisions regarding teaching and learning are made at the school level. That is to say, the determination of a school's particular mix of resources which will effectively support its teaching and learning programs is a decision best made at the school as opposed to a central location (Caldwell, 1988, p.4). An effective principal, is described as one who fosters the participation of those affected by planning in the decision making process (Dufour and Eaker, 1985, p.15). An effective planning process involves members of the school community in the formulation of educational goals and objectives and identifying the educational problems of the school (Chapman, 1987).

Decisions should be made by those with the best local information, those affected by implementation and those who must live with the consequences of the decision. Given these factors, it is better to have "localised decision making than to have decisions made by a remote authority" (Beare, 1988, p.153).

Effective principals recognise and understand that participation in school decision making will influence the degree of commitment to the achievement of goals. (Dufour and Eaker, 1987, p.15). The development of participative decision making processes boasts a post bureaucratic philosophy which sees parents and teachers as owners or stakeholders who invest their time and energy in achieving organisational goals (Beare, 1989, p.16). This new philosophy redefines the power and control relationships within schools by providing all members of the school community with

an equal voice (Hargreaves, 1991, p.6). This, in turn, can be described as a collaborative approach which enhances the professionalism of educational decision making.

TEACHER PARTICIPATION IN PLANNING AND IMPLEMENTATION

The belief that teacher participation in program planning and implementation will enhance school effectiveness has been linked by Hoy and Miskel (1991, p.198) to Drucker's *Management By Objectives* (MBO). They point out:

> Essentially, MBO assumes that if employees are given increased responsibility for developing personal goals in relation to the organisation's goals, autonomy in achieving them, and methods for evaluating their achievement, they will work harder and be more effective in their jobs.

One of the benefits of providing teachers with increased participation in the determination of goals is a higher level of commitment to pre-determined outcomes (Caldwell and Spinks, 1988, p.55). Teacher participation in establishing the means by which school goals will be achieved demonstrates a shift away from the notion of schools as bureaucratic organisations (Hoy and Miskel, 1991, p.136). A collaborative approach to decision making and problem solving sees a move from the traditional hierarchical command relationships of a bureaucracy to a culture of equally committed professionals.

School management processes which facilitate the communication of organisational goals while loosely structuring means, not only emphasise accomplishment but also engage teachers as professionals (Sergiovanni et al., 1987, p.17). Separate studies by Little (1981) and Rosenholtz (1989) provide evidence that professional collegiality develops a task oriented culture. A collegial approach to planning and implementing - in which teachers participate in the setting of school goals, the writing and

implementing of whole school programs and the monitoring of progress - provides meaningfulness, responsibility and a knowledge of results. When these factors are present, an individual's professional commitment to outcomes is enhanced (Hoy and Miskel 1991, pp.193-194; Sergiovanni, 1987, pp.247-250; Ingvarson, 1990, pp.174-175).

Effective principals establish management processes which communicate values and goals (Dufour and Eaker, 1987). These processes mould staff with different philosophies, experiences and approaches into an effective working team (Chapman, 1987). School management processes which combine the communication of values and operational parameters provide a means of leading towards effective schools (Sergiovanni et al., 1987, p.124).

Principals are no longer able to automatically assume a leadership role because of their position. A school, as a team of educational professionals, has its effectiveness enhanced when organising processes facilitate the empowering of teachers. Schools have a variety of leadership needs which can be met by a number of individuals at different times.

Leadership should not be viewed as "a limited commodity to be distributed to only a select few" (Rallis, 1988, p.643). The management role of effective principals involves the development of processes which communicates to the teaching staff that they are able to undertake leadership functions. As a result, leadership is a quality to be exerted by classroom teachers as educational professionals. Individual and collective leadership needs to be regularly exercised if we aim to deal with student needs effectively (Phillips, 1988, pp.12-13).

DEVELOPING CYCLIC PLANNING AND EVALUATION PROCEDURES

Devolution of responsibilities and decision making to the school level, which has enhanced professional autonomy, brings with it increased accountability. In other words, the move away from a paternalistic education system means that schools must account for meeting organisational goals. Consequently, school management as a process of meeting organisational goals through others, requires processes which clearly establish intent, prioritise the utilisation of resources and emphasise the importance of gathering information or feedback on outcomes.

Decentralisation means that principals, as school managers, are expected to function in the same way as 'good' managers in the business world. They are required to value the cost-effective efficiency principles related to a more sophisticated version of Taylor's scientific management. This approach, described as neo-scientific management, expresses concern for efficiency, the benefits of a theory 'Y' approach to human relations in the work place, the importance of developing policy which is responsive to the dynamic forces of the external environment, and the need to understand organisational culture for the purpose of controlling costs and change (Sergiovanni et al., 1987, pp.94-137).

The resurgence of Taylor's scientific management principles within the field of educational administration has emphasised the need for school planning and evaluation processes. According to Sergiovanni et al. (1987, p.103), the desire for a more sophisticated form of scientific management in education has offered:

> ...such efficiency ideas as performance contracting, behavioural objectives, state and national assessment, cost-benefit analysis, Management by Objectives (MBO), Planning Program Budgeting Systems (PPBS), and Management Information Systems (MIS), each prescribed to maximise educational reliability and productivity at decreased cost.

The new emphasis on the application of scientific management techniques to educational administration has resulted in the development of various planning models for schools.   For example, Table 4 outlines Caldwell and Spink's (1988, p.134) *Collaborative School Management Cycle* which identifies six phases in a cyclic school planning process.

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TABLE 4
COLLABORATIVE SCHOOL MANAGEMENT CYCLE
(Caldwell and Spinks, 1988, p.134)

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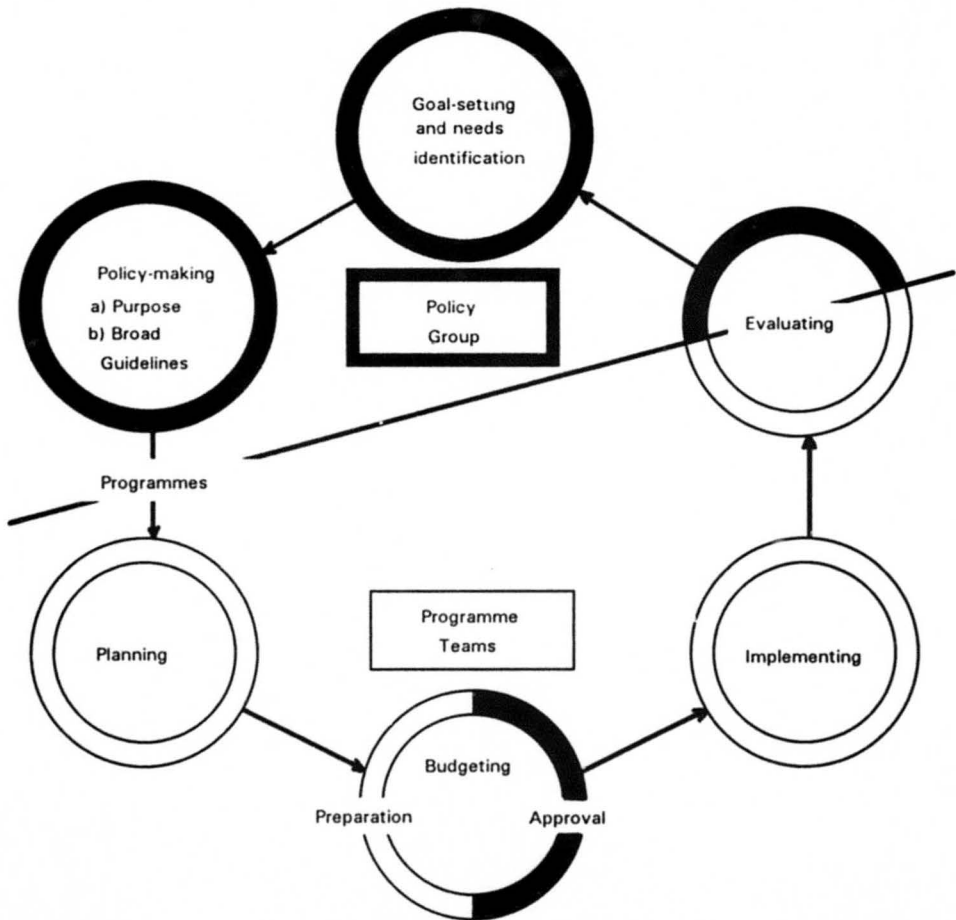
A collaborative planning process establishes commitment to intended outcomes. Principals need to create control processes which compare actual school performance with pre-determined performance objectives. As a result, the establishment of management information systems and the administration of the school budget are important management functions for principals (Chapman, 1987). Information systems and budgets allow principals to regularly monitor and measure performance against pre-determined outcomes.

CHAPTER 7
CORPORATE MANAGEMENT

The effective schools literature highlights the need to reform educational administration. It points to changes away from centralised bureaucratic organisation as the path to school improvement. A decentralised planning process is promoted as a means of redefining schools as professional public sector organisations. Given the reality of government and educational reforms in changed school organisation, what then, are the characteristics of this new corporate managerial role compared with the old bureaucratic administrative functions? This question will be addressed by comparing organisational and management literature on private business management practices with bureaucratic administration.

This chapter of the literature review aims to develop a corporate managerial framework. It attempts to incorporate the key response to educational and public sector literature which describes management reform as the path to effective school management. As a result, the framework is of fundamental significance to the overall evaluation of the Fairmont model and may have implications for the nature and design of other management training programs.

Writers on public sector management and reform have described corporate management as the introduction of private sector management practices into public administration. It is the introduction of a performance control system which seeks to have the 'corporate whole' account for the achievement of projected targets (Emy and Hughes, 1991, pp.424-425). This perspective raises a number of questions about the manager's role in a corporate organisation. For example, is there a particular organisational structure in which corporate management functions are specified; or, are there certain ways in which a corporate manager plans, deploys, motivates and evaluates?

The development of a comprehensive corporate managerial framework seeks to address questions of this nature by drawing upon a combination of management theory, organisational research and a process perspective of management. Such an approach produces a contrived picture of 'a highly dynamic set of relationships' known as 'management' (Newman and Warren, 1977). Therefore, from this starting point corporate managerial practice will be further clarified by placing it alongside bureaucratic administration.

Management theories and general principles have evolved over four developmental stages during the 20th century. These are: 1900-1930 - the classical school of Taylor's scientific management and Weber's classical organisational theory; 1930-1960 - the behavioural school consisting of Mayo's work on the Hawthorne experiment and McGregor's theory X and Y and, the management science school based on the organisational research model (OR) of World War II; 1960-1970 - the systems and contingency approaches encompassing the work of such writers as Chandler, Lawrence and Lorsch and Mintzberg in the area of organisational design; and, 1970 - to the present - the pluralist approach of Weicks and March which utilises aspects of existing theories to explain the many factors which influence management behaviour and organisational design. This section draws upon these schools and approaches in order to identify corporate managerial functions and their related skills.

In addition to management theory, research in organisational structures by Mintzberg, Burns and Stalker, Child and Khandwalla and other contingency theorists, helps to set the parameters for management behaviour. For example, the process of 'ordering a meal' is something consumers 'do'. 'How' they 'order a meal' depends upon where they are - in a fast food outlet or a five star restaurant. Similarly, managers 'plan' - but 'how' they 'plan' is structurally determined. For example, Newman and Warren (1977) point out:

...the management design best suited to research laboratories is
inappropriate to the cafeteria. To be sure, several common processes
- organising, planning, leading and controlling - are essential for each
of these units, but as we adapt various concepts to the unique needs of
each venture refinement is vital.

Likewise, Allison (1988, p.286) believes at a general level "management is
management whether public or private". However, he argues a difference in 'how'
managers manage by citing an array of influencing factors ranging from the role of the
press and media to measures of performance which affect 'how' managers manage.
Knowledge and understanding of corporate and bureaucratic structures will explain
'how' management processes - in an organisational sense - are adapted and refined.

Contingency theorists believe no organisational structure can be deemed the best or be
exclusively nominated as representing private or public sector organisation (Duncan,
1979, p.173). However, the work of Mintzberg (1979) in describing the simple
structure, machine bureaucracy, professional bureaucracy, divisionalised form and
adhocracy as five basic structural configurations, together with Burns and Stalker's
(1966) view of organic and mechanistic organisations, provides a level of abstraction
which assists in clarifying 'how' managers manage in corporate and bureaucratic
organisations.

Management theory and organisational research helps to clarify 'how' managers
manage, whereas management processes approach provides specific managerial
functions. In most cases, the management processes used by writers in the field are
based upon Fayol's five elements of management: to plan, to organise, to command,
to coordinate and to control (Stoner et al., 1985; Knootz and O'Donnell, 1978; and,
Gannon, 1988). For example, Gulick and Urwick's (1937) acronym POSDCORB
(planning, organising, staffing, directing, co-ordinating, reporting and budgeting)
which describes management, stems from a process approach. Again, the process
perspective of management is a level of abstraction which defines 'what' managers do.

Throughout this chapter Stoner et al.'s (1985) modification of Fayol's five elements of management will be utilised. Stoner et al. describe the processes of management as: planning, organising, leading and controlling. This is based upon the acceptance that leading is synonymous with commanding and that coordinating is part of the organising element. In support of this approach, Sergiovanni (1987, p.7) explains that, "Planning, organising, leading and controlling are the four functions that theorists often mention." Although these are not a conclusive or exclusive set of management processes they provide a positive starting point in determining 'what' managers do.

The following section is divided into four parts, namely planning, organising, leading and controlling. Each management process is discussed in terms of 'how' it would be undertaken in corporate and bureaucratic organisations respectively. This, in turn, establishes the structure for the construction of a framework of corporate management knowledge/skills.

PLANNING

Planning, at a basic level, consists of establishing goals and identifying the means of achieving them (Gannon, 1988, pp.100-102). Although this definition depicts planning as a simple procedure it can be a complex management process. The time span of strategic plans, the components of action or operational plans and the openness of the planning process not only determines the level of complexity but also illustrate the differences between corporate and bureaucratic planning. Views of corporate and bureaucratic planning centre on two opposing profiles of planning as a management function, namely, proactive and reactive responses. Gannon (1988, p.15) explains:

Foyal believed that the primary management function is planning, and managers should be proactive so that problems are anticipated and, if possible, avoided either totally or partially before they occur. Mintzberg believes that managers react to problems, which then became the starting point and the basis for their planning activities.

Corporate Planning is Proactive.

Corporate planning formalises goals, strategies and review processes as a means of linking the present with the future and thereby increasing the chances of gaining a successful result (David, 1991, p.167). It provides a systematic rational decision making mechanism for responding to a dynamic environment and formalising behaviour. Corporate planning comprises of two planning levels, namely: strategic and operational. Strategic planning establishes long-range goals of up to five years while, single-use short term operational plans, such as programs, projects and budgets, provide the means of achieving the long range goals of the organisation.

The strategic and operational planning process provides managers with a systematic cycle for rationalised decision making. It consists of four basic steps: goal setting, needs assessment, identification of barriers and aids and development of courses of action. Each of these steps is linked to a rational decision making model which involves:

> ...diagnosing and defining the problem, gathering and analysing the facts relevant to the problem, developing and evaluating alternative solutions to the problem, selecting the most satisfactory alternative, and converting this alternative into action (Stoner et al., 1985, p.197).

In other words, the proactive nature of corporate planning requires managers to deal with problems and uncertainties by 'heading them off at the pass'. The first two steps in this proactive planning process diagnose and define the problem. Steps three and four utilise information to determine the best course of action for maximising outcomes.

Step 1: Goal setting provides direction for the organisation which establishes the decision making parameters for the allocation of resources. Strategically, effective goal setting requires knowledge of the organisation's purpose and skill in defining problems. Skill in these areas involves the ability to write a mission or 'why' statement which encapsulates the problem which the organisation is to address. As a result, the mission statement provides the focus for the subsequent development of objectives and programs (Gilbert, 1991, pp.46-60). In addition to knowledge and skills related to problem identification and goal setting, effective managers need skills in gathering on-going information on the organisation's current position in order to diagnose the problem to which identified goals and programs are linked.

Step 2: Needs assessment or analysis determines the organisation's current position in relation to identified goals. It guides decision making regarding appropriate objectives and strategies by diagnosing the organisation's required level of change. The degree to which programs are resourced can then be rationalised according to the level of need it addresses (David, 1991, p.162). Establishing the organisation's current position requires management skills in developing and using a management information system for the purpose of collecting and using information on current objectives, strategies and resources (Stoner et al., 1985, p.155). Further to determining a program's level of priority and resourcing, the regular gathering of information assists in assessing the possible success of a program.

Step 3: Identifying barriers and aids involves the use of the information gathered from the needs assessment. This information aids rational decision making in planning by assisting managers to predict or forecast the future. A rational comprehensive problem solving approach is a management science technique which requires managers to investigate problems and seek alternative strategies. The track record of environmental and resource factors on past plans helps in diagnosing present problems and choosing the best alternative solution. According to Stoner et al. (1985, p.221),

the volume and variety of information needed for identifying barriers and aids to planning is too tedious and complex for one individual to handle. Thus, management science as a rational problem solving approach requires skills in the use of computers and group management. Through skills in handling information and problem solving, managers are able to reduce the level of risk associated with a new course of action by basing decisions on rationalised estimates of the costs, benefits and possible success of outcomes. [7]

Step 4: Developing courses of action, the final step in the corporate planning process, involves the selection and implementation of an appropriate program - one which not only addresses the problem but is also most likely to succeed. Generally, a program contains a number of components which specify the resources, the sequence in which activities are to be implemented, the timelines for the completion of each activity and the person responsible for ensuring each phase is carried out.

Budgets and performance indicators are two important components of a single-use program. Courses of action (action plans) or programs involving these elements act as a performance control mechanism. In the planning stage, budgets commit financial resources and control decision making regarding purchases and future expenditure. Performance indicators predetermine the criteria for the success of a program. They specify the type of evidence which will indicate whether the program is on target. Consequently, the development of a course of action requires skills in writing budgets and performance indicators.

When plans are written corporate managers are accountable for their effective implementation. Peter Drucker's (1954) 'management by objectives' approach advocates the participation of those affected by planning in decision making as a

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[7] For a more in-depth discussion of rational decision making see: Ham, C. and Hill, M. (1984), chapters 4 and 5.

means of enhancing commitment to outcomes. Participative decision making in corporate planning allows those affected to identify needs and agree upon future outcomes. This frees planning from a reliance upon precedent and allows it to accommodate change (Hayes and Watts, 1986, p.54). Moreover, it builds commitment to outcomes and thereby provides another means of formulating behaviour or standardising performance through the motivation associated with achieving predetermined goals. Managers need skills in leading and controlling respectively in order to bring about effective participative decision making in the planning process and to standardise performance. As a result, participation in planning will be discussed in later sections. The next section focuses on bureaucratic planning which, unlike corporate planning, is reactive and relies upon set policies, proper procedure, rules and regulations as a means to behaviour formulation.

Bureaucratic Planning is Reactive.

Managers within a bureaucracy are motivated to plan when confronted by a problem. Planning, as a reaction, acts as a stabilising influence upon the organisation in a turbulent environment. Bureaucratic planning, like its corporate counterpart, takes place at a strategic and operational level. Strategically, policies establish the overall direction of the organisation while standing plans, in the form of procedures and rules, dictate 'how' the policy is to be implemented.

Bureaucratic planning, as a public sector management process, occurs over a relatively short time frame. The duration of strategic policies is affected by political pressures and the electoral cycle (Allison, 1988, p.287). In addition to short term strategies, day to day decision making is reliant upon standing plans, such as, procedures and rules. Consequently, bureaucratic planning enhances efficiency by stabilising the organisation.

Stoner et al. (1987, p.416) describe bureaucratic planning as consisting of rigid internal procedures which creates a culture of certainty and makes it difficult for the organisation to respond to change. Gawthrop (1973, pp.17-18) supports this view by claiming that a bureaucracy avoids dealing with many and varied changes by narrowly defining its external environment:

> ...the future continues to be based on the present, and the concept of public bureaucracy's external environment still is narrowly defined in terms of predictable, stable, constant, and limited relationships.

Bureaucratic planning maintains stability by restricting the degree of participation in the development of policies and procedures (Stoner, et al., 1987, p.416). Mintzberg (1979, p.19) sees planning as the domain of the 'technostructure' - senior executives, policy writers and line managers whose task is to standardise the work of others. The degree of participation by subordinates is limited to 'functionaries' charged with meeting the objectives (rules and procedures) of the organisation (Gregory, 1982, p.3). This process, which restricts external influences on planning, eliminates conflict and maintains a culture of certainty. That is:

> ...the problem in the Machine Bureaucracy is not to develop an open atmosphere where people can talk the conflict out but to enforce a closed tightly controlled one where work can get done despite them (Mintzberg, 1979, p.321).

Therefore the creation of a stable environment through restricting the involvement of those affected by strategic and operational planning in decision making has the capacity to increase efficiency albeit at the expense of effectiveness. In other words, specialists can lose sight of their role in meeting organisational objectives and begin to see their personal operational objectives as ends in themselves. Schein and Greiner (1984, p.387) describe this phenomenon as functional myopia and suboptimization:

Functional managers and * ...icians tend to develop an allegiance to their particular function. Typically they have been 'raised' over many years within that function and have acclimatised themselves to its norms, sanction, and language system.   This approach is quite effective in developing and concentrating technical expertise on specific and relatively fixed tasks.

In summary, the significant difference between corporate and bureaucratic planning is time related.   Corporate planning is proactive in that it attempts to standardise employee behaviours through the development of a commitment to future achievements or outcomes.   Consequently, the corporate planning skills of goal setting, problem identification, budgeting, performance indicators and the management of information are related to standardising a commitment to a future ideal.   In contrast, bureaucratic planning is about the 'here and now'.   It is the writing of policies, establishing of procedures and the creating of rules and regulations which standardise day to day reactions (Gannon, 1988, pp.111-112).   Table 5 summarises the differences between corporate and bureaucratic planning.   From this position, it is pertinent to consider how corporations and bureaucracies utilise resources as a means of achieving organisational goals.

TABLE 5
BUREAUCRATIC AND CORPORATE PLANNING

Bureaucracy   **Corporate Managerialism**
(efficiency)   Planning   (efficiency and effectiveness)
●──●
Reactive   **Proactive**

Writes policies   Sets goals
Sets rules   Identifies problems
Establishes procedures   Writes budgets
                                              Writes performance indicators
                                    Establishes a management information system
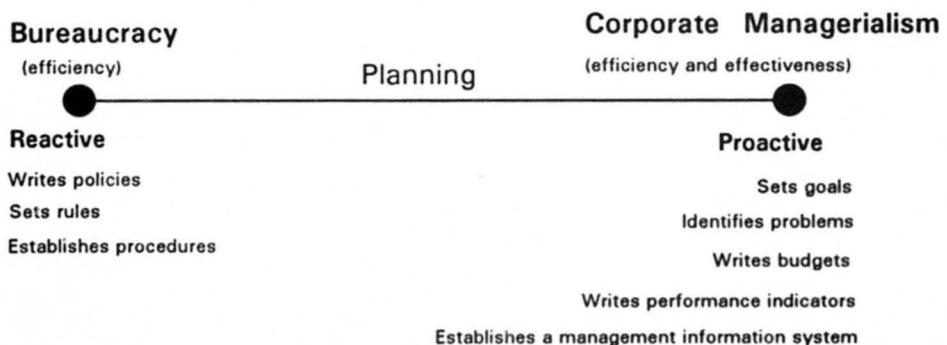
ORGANISING

Organisation is a process in which resources are utilised for the purpose of achieving goals. Stoner et al. (1985, p.17) believe "...that managers must have the ability to determine what type of organisation will be needed to accomplish a given set of objectives." The three major approaches which management can use to arrange the overall system are functional, product/market and matrix organisation. The subsystem or operating core of the organisation can be further divided according to areas of specialisation, goals, clientele or location.

Corporate Organisation is Loosely-Coupled.

Corporate organisation attempts to enhance the effectiveness of planning through the collaboration of employees in the decision making process while maintaining control over organisational outcomes. It establishes an organisational structure and defines responsibilities which decentralise decision making power. Consequently, this section on corporate organising examines the 'matrix' as a loosely-coupled organisational structure and looks at the use of co-ordinating mechanisms which group staff for the purpose of achieving specific objectives.

Weicks (1976) describes decentralised work constellations or configurations, which create a dual authority, as 'loosely-coupled.' The 'looseness' of the operational units relates to their semi-autonomous decision making authority. 'Coupled' refers to the operational unit's accountability for the achievement of organisational goals. In short, a 'loosely-coupled' approach matches what Pelz and Andrews (1976) refer to as 'controlled freedom' which is 'the freedom to decide how to do what has to be done'. For example, Mintzberg (1979, p.383) says:

In general, the headquarters allows the division close to full autonomy to make their own decisions, and then monitors the results of these decisions.

'Loosely-coupled' approaches therefore establish an organisational concept of dual authority. A formal organisational design which exhibits a 'loosely-coupled' characteristic is known as 'matrix'. This arrangement and allocation of work requires a line of vertical centralisation cross hatched with a line of horizontal decentralisation. That is to say, the 'matrix' manager is accountable upwards to the centralised authority for the performance of the unit but shares power across the unit with work groups.

Project or program management is a type of variation upon the matrix structure. Beare et al. (1989, p.86) and Handy and Aitken (1986, p.88) explain that programs, which emanate from the planning domain of the corporation, are allocated to skilled people brought together in the form of project teams. Delegation of tasks to groups of creative people (forming teams) is advocated as a means of increasing productivity through collaborative innovation (Stoner et al., 1985, p.316; and, Whetton and Cameron, 1991, pp.202-203). Corporate organisation, which groups people and other resources together for the purpose of achieving a specified objective, establishes a dual authority shared between management and semi-autonomous groups.

Committees and task forces provide two co-ordinating strategies by which managers can group employees. The standing committee is a permanent group which handles recurring activities. However, its level of effectiveness can be limited by: a lack of total commitment by committee members due to their full time employment in another area; a tendency to get bogged down over minor details; and, a desire by group members to swing the direction of the committee to favour their sectional interests. To enhance the effectiveness of the committee approach corporate managers can use temporary committees to achieve a specified objective. The temporary or ad hoc

committee is quickly nominated and then disbanded once the objective for which it was formed has been achieved.

The task force, like the temporary committee, focuses its attention on a specific objective. Again, the task force can be disbanded once the specified target has been reached. There are two distinguishing features between the task force and the ad hoc committee. Firstly, its membership is deliberately drawn from the work areas that relate to the objective to be achieved. And secondly, it tends to maintain a small operating core of full time members. The advantage of the task force is reflected in the depth of expertise which is drawn together. However, task forces can be ineffective if their members do not believe they have the authority to make significant decisions (Gannon, 1988, pp.229-230).

The sharing of power with collaborative work groups, coupled with the need to control outcomes, increases the potential for conflict. The corporate manager, in integrating the activities of semi-autonomous committees and task forces with organisational goals, requires skills in both negotiation and conflict resolution through collaboration which seeks to promote a win/win situation or a mutually adjusted compromise. Organising skills in the context of delegation requires the creation of a decentralised work place and identifies the specific role and aim of groups, while skills in negotiation and conflict resolution assist line managers in linking the efforts of these co-ordinating strategies to organisational goals.

Bureaucratic Organisation is Specialised.

The efficient co-ordination of work in a bureaucratic organisation maintains centralised decision making as to 'who' will do 'what' in regard to achieving organisational goals. Thus, bureaucratic organising consists of a functional organisation and a centralised co-ordination mechanism based upon a scalar principle

(that is, a scaling arrangement) which specifies the chain of command. This principle of classical management theory describes the hierarchy as being "arranged in terms of a chain ranging from the ultimate authority to the lowest ranks" (Gannon, 1988, p.218). According to Gannon (1988, p.216):

> Weber, in particular, stressed that the hierarchy should be arranged in terms of various offices detailing specific duties, responsibilities, and rights, all of which are generally incorporated into written job descriptions.

This organisational arrangement makes a person's place and authority in the hierarchical structure explicit (Stoner et al., 1985, p.365) by indicating to the individual:

- who they can delegate work to
- who can delegate work to them
- to whom they are accountable

Therefore, this section examines the functional form of organisation as the major co-ordinating mechanism of the bureaucracy.

The bureaucracy organises its operations by grouping employees into specialised departments, such as, personnel, marketing and production. When this configuration occurs a functional organisation is said to be in existence. According to Gannon (1988, p.164), the functional organisation tends to centre real power in the hands of just one or a few top-level managers.

There are two major advantages to a functional organisation. Firstly, it enhances job specialisation which provides an efficient means of tackling problems. In other words, one department may be responsible for maintaining financial accounts which eliminates the duplication of effort. In addition to efficiency, job specialisation helps

to create a career path for employees. Individuals who demonstrate aptitude and ability in an area of specialisation may gain the attention needed for promotion.
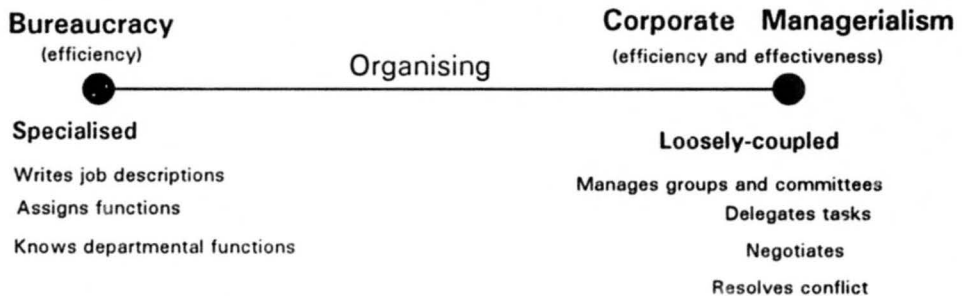
The second advantage of the functional organisation is its facilitation of communication within the department. The sharing of expertise related to a common problem assists in developing the department's efficiency. Furthermore, the operation of each functional department is supervised by the next level up the hierarchy, which is supervised by the next level up and so on. Supervisors are responsible for reporting on the functions of their department to the next level supervisor. This unity of command provides superordinates with decision making power over the functions of subordinates, thus maintaining a tight reign over confusion and conflict (Gannon, 1988, pp.203-205).

The disadvantages of the functional form relates to the lack of job depth and job enrichment as motivational factors in enhancing commitment to organisational goals. This problem arises as a result of specialised departments reducing complex problems to the smallest element. Simplified tasks can lead to boredom for those responsible for completing them on a regular basis. When the complexity of a task is too shallow and the width extremely narrow the degree of challenge and variety needed to be motivating is limited. A second element of the functional form which reduces employees efforts towards the achievement of organisational goals is specialisation itself. The energies of specialised departments and individual specialists for achieving organisational outcomes can give way to parochial or sectional interests. This phenomenon in bureaucratic organisations has been referred to as 'empire building'.

In summary, the unity of command, which ensures a smooth flow of information via the formal chain of authority, creates job specialisation through specific job descriptions. A manager needs the ability to define an individual's job specialisation through the job description form. This, in turn, allows individuals with minimal

training to fulfil their role in the rationalised work flow of the bureaucracy.   It promotes efficiency and reduces the demand for communication and interpersonal skills as complex tasks are broken down into many simple parts.   Bureaucratic organising requires managers with specific knowledge of departmental functions and skills thereby enabling them to delegate specific functions in the work flow to individuals.   In contrast, corporate organising delegates goal-oriented tasks to collaborative work groups.   Table 6 summarises the essential management functions associated with bureaucratic and corporate organising.

TABLE 6
BUREAUCRATIC AND CORPORATE ORGANISING

Bureaucracy   **Corporate   Managerialism**
(efficiency)   Organising   (efficiency and effectiveness)
●──●

Specialised   Loosely-coupled

Writes job descriptions   Manages groups and committees
Assigns functions   Delegates tasks
Knows departmental functions   Negotiates
                                                               Resolves conflict

LEADING

The view of leadership has developed and changed over many years of research (Bennis and Nanus, 1985, p.3; Stoner et al., 1985, p.569).   Some writers describe it as a function of management while others see management as a tool of leaders.   This study maintains that leadership is a management function.   Simply, it defines managerial leadership as the directing of group members or subordinates in activities related to the achievement of organisational goals (Stoner et al., 1985, p.569; Gannon,

1988, p.272; and, Bennis and Nanus, 1985, p.21). Essentially, it is the style of leadership related to motivation, power and communication which distinguishes corporate from bureaucratic leadership.

Corporate Leadership is Bottom-Up

Corporate leadership, as a bottom-up approach to change, devolves problem identification and the development of solutions down to the most appropriate level of the organisation (Gannon, 1988, p.498). It depicts the manager as someone who empowers others by supplying information, resources and support (Kanter, 1983, p.159). Given this bottom-up approach, how do corporate managers motivate, communicate and use power?

Management literature emphasises the importance of the manager's ability to motivate staff. Two theories which help to distinguish motivation as a function of corporate management in contrast to bureaucratic leadership are activational (content) theories, which focus upon employees internal needs, and directional (process) theories, which look more or less exclusively at motivation in terms of channelling the energies of staff. From a corporate managerial perspective, motivation relates to the activational theory of the human resource model and directional theory of goal setting.

The human resource model, which stems from the work of such motivational theorists as McGregor and Maslow, argues that people are motivated by work and do not necessarily see it as undesirable. Therefore motivation is derived from contributing to the identification and implementation of meaningful goals as well as the capacity to exercise a degree of self-control over the implementation process. This particular view of motivation was clearly illustrated by McGregor's theory 'Y' and theory 'X' model. Theory 'Y', as part of corporate leadership's view of motivation, differs from a traditional model of motivation because managers do not motivate staff through

financial incentives but through the sharing of responsibility and power for the identification and implementation of organisational objectives (Stoner et al., 1985, p.534). This view as to 'what' motivates employees begs the question: how does one direct self-regulating and powerful individuals and groups? The answer to this question leads to an examination of goal setting theory as the means to directing corporate staff to work towards organisational goals.

Goal setting theory holds that values and intentions are two determinants of people's behaviour. Values, as something gained and kept, are manifested in our emotions and desires. Intentions are personal goals which attempt to satisfy these desires. As a result of this link, goal setting plays an important part in an organisation's aim to increase productivity. Edwin Locke (1976) found that the setting of specific and hard, yet attainable goals corresponded to increases in performance.

Corporate managers are goal oriented (Dufour and Eaker, 1987). Goals and objectives provide the organisation with a clear sense of direction (Bennis and Nanus, 1985, p.89). Clearly stated goals help to define what is worthwhile. Work teams, empowered with direction and purpose, can be trusted to make decisions without referring to a higher authority.

However, simply setting goals will not guarantee success. As a motivational strategy, goal setting is dependent upon the degree to which goals are understood and accepted. In other words, if organisational goals are to be the intention of employees then they have to be valued by them. This qualification requires managers with skills in increasing staff participation in the goal setting process.

A bottom-up leadership approach attempts to develop ownership for organisational goals. The employees' ownership of objectives is seen as a means of creating an ideological commitment to identified outcomes. Deal and Kennedy (1988, pp.94-96)

describe this commitment as a 'cabal' or a behavioural logic known as 'dummy theorem' which is a loyalty created when people agree to focus on a common purpose. Loyalty to a common cause is the underlying behavioural element in goal setting as a means of motivating staff to comply with organisational direction.

A view of motivation which believes employees want to work and are encouraged to work harder when they identify with the values and intentions of the organisation requires management skills in facilitating participation. Moreover, this motivational style requires communication skills. The goal orientation of corporate managers defines the 'what' of communication. That is, corporate leadership conveys constant messages which focus everyones attention on organisational values and intentions. In addition, the need to develop participation and ownership for organisational values and intention necessitates a communication style which is bottom-up.

Corporate managers, as part of the leading process, communicate the agreed vision, mission statement or 'why' statement that encapsulates the values of the organisation. Deal and Kennedy (1988, p.24) believe the essence of an organisation's philosophy is embodied in its core values. The communication of values through slogans, metaphors, heroes and ceremonies becomes the most visible part of a complex system of beliefs as to how the organisation should achieve success.

According to Deal and Kennedy (1988, p.24), the corporate manager should use these cultural techniques to send messages about values. To clarify and ensure understanding of organisational intentions or objectives a corporate manager uses a two-way communication process and a communication network which decentralises decision making. Communication as a two-way process invites the receiver of messages to provide the sender with feedback (Stoner et al., 1985, p.603). Strategies such as 'management by walking around' and adopting an 'open door policy' are examples of a two-way communication process.

Two-way communication allows managers to continually counsel and coach staff towards a clear understanding of the organisation's direction and to reinforce appropriate behaviour. Consequently, the two major advantages of this mode of communication are accuracy and an increase in receiver confidence. In addition to two-way communication, corporate leading establishes circular or chain communication networks. Simply, these types of networks have the capacity to decentralise decision making which, in turn, increases the speed and accuracy in relation to solving complex problems. In addition to motivation and communication as the means of directing staff in the achievement of objections, the final component of leading considers the use of power.

Power is the currency of the corporate organisation. It is passed around from individuals to groups and back again as the need arises. In terms of corporate leading, "..power must become a unit of exchange - an active, changing token in creative, productive and communicative transaction" (Bennis and Nanus, 1985, p.80). Hayes and Watts (1986, p.66) explain that the modern corporation is held together by social influences in a 'no boss' business world. Thus, the sharing of power with work groups or teams creates a democratic procedure in which charismatic authority based upon expertise and influence provides the power for directing others (Hoyle, 1986, p.33).

Expert power is exerted by an individual when others believe they possess knowledge and wisdom associated with the task at hand. As a result, the group is more inclined to give credit for what they see and hear from someone who they believe is an expert. Personal or referent power, like expert power, is bottom-up. An individual's charisma and association with other important people becomes attractive and engaging to others. These bottom-up means of gaining power and influence are reliant upon a climate of trust. Expert and personal power utilises influence as its means of directing the activities of others. Corporate managers require skills in the work of the

organisation in order to be viewed as an expert practitioner as well as the ability to develop the influential networks needed to increase personal power.

In summary, corporate leading is a bottom-up process of directing the organisation towards its goals. It requires a variety of skills related to motivating, communicating and using power. In fostering motivation, corporate managers need skills in increasing participation in goal setting by those affected by plans. In communication, corporate managers need the ability to establish organisational values and a two-way communication process as a means of reinforcing the link between values and intentions through listening, counselling and coaching. In the use of power, corporate managers need interpersonal skills related to exerting influence through expert and personal power. By way of comparison, the following section considers motivation, communication and the use of power in a bureaucratic leadership environment.

Bureaucratic Leadership is Top-Down

Bureaucratic leadership maintains a top-down process in the directing of staff towards the achievement of organisational goals. It sees responsibility for problem identification and the development of solutions as the province of the 'technostructure'. This approach depicts the bureaucratic manager as someone with the power to direct others by giving orders and directives. Given this top-down approach, how do bureaucratic managers motivate, communicate and use power?

The two perspective's of motivation, activational (content) theories and directional (process) theories, are reapplied in this section to help explain motivation as a function of bureaucratic management. Bureaucratically, motivation relates to the activational theory of the traditional model and the directional theory of operant conditioning.

The traditional model, which evolved from the scientific management school, describes the manager's task as getting people to work efficiently. It is based upon the belief that workers are inherently lazy and perceive work as undesirable. This particular view relates to McGregor's theory 'Y' and theory 'X' model. In terms of bureaucratic leadership, theory 'X', as a traditional model of motivation, requires managers to provide workers with an external stimulus to motivate them to work hard (Stoner et al., 1985, p.534). Therefore efficiency is related to 'one best way' with financial rewards for those who perform in this way (Stoner et al., 1985, p.533). This view of 'what' motivates employees is linked to operant conditioning as a means as to 'how' to motivate staff to work towards organisational goals.

Operant conditioning or behaviour management theory specifies that consequences of a past action will have an effect upon future behaviours. The relationship between this learning theory and the achievement of organisational goals suggests that some form of stimulus is required to motivate workers. At a very basic level, it says workers will keep working if the organisation keeps paying. However, channelling work towards maximising organisational goals requires the input of additional pleasant outcomes in order to reinforce maximising behaviours.

Modern bureaucracies have an equitable reward system, that is, one which applies to all employees. It consists of such things as annual salary increments and promotion based upon years of service and performance. The other side of the operant conditioning coin, negative consequences, will be considered when looking at the use of power. A further management function associated with a top-down bureaucratic leadership style is communication.

Bureaucratic managers, as part of the leading process, use one-way communication to direct staff. They also use a communication network which centralises decision making. A one-way communication style is evident when the message sender does not

expect or invite feedback from the receiver (Stoner el at, 1985, p.603). Policy statements, rules and memos are examples of one-way communication. The speed at which information can be transmitted and the apparent orderliness of the process are two advantages of this approach.
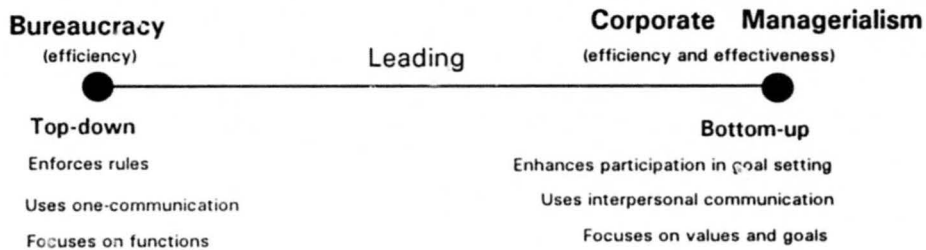
The types of communication networks associated with the centralised decision making of a bureaucracy are the star or wheel and the 'Y'. These networks see the flow of communication emanating from a central location and being directed back to the same position for decision making. Like the circle and chain networks of corporate leading, the advantages of these networks relate to speed and accuracy. However, this only applies when the task to be completed is simple (Stoner et al., 1985, pp.612-614). In addition to motivation and communication, a further component common to bureaucratic leading as the means of directing staff in the achievement of objectives, is the use of power.

Power, as a function of bureaucratic management, is based on rational-legal authority. This type of authority exists when subordinates acknowledge that an individual's position in the hierarchy provides a legal right to exercise power. For example, the setting of a budget or the monthly work roster by the unit manager represents a top-down legal power.

Positional power based upon rational-legal authority brings about compliance through the imposition of rules and regulations. In addition to positional power, a bureaucratic manager may, as a result of rational-legal authority, use rewards or coercive power to influence staff. Reward power relates to the managers capacity to increase pay, grant favours and promote those who are seen to be doing a good job. Coercive power, as opposed to rewards, influences employees by intimating that privileges or even their jobs could be lost if they fail to comply with directives.

The use of position, reward and coercive power sees bureaucracies driven by a sense of duty, possible rewards and sanctions. Power as a management function of bureaucratic leadership in influencing the performance of staff requires managers who know the jurisdiction of their position in terms of the rules and sanctions they can enforce. Table 7 summarises the different functions associated with leading in a bureaucratic and corporate structure.

TABLE 7
BUREAUCRATIC AND CORPORATE LEADING

Bureaucracy		Corporate Managerialism
(efficiency)	Leading	(efficiency and effectiveness)
Top-down		Bottom-up
Enforces rules		Enhances participation in goal setting
Uses one-communication		Uses interpersonal communication
Focuses on functions		Focuses on values and goals

CONTROLLING

Control, according to Strong and Smith (cited in Stoner et. al, 1985, p.725) is important because planning, organising and leading have little likelihood of success without it. Controlling is a management process which helps ensure that an organisation is moving towards its stated goals. Stoner et al. (1985, p.741) explain that, "Control is the vitally important process through which managers ensure that actual activities conform to planned activities". It compares the actual performance of the organisation with pre-determined standards. This requires the establishing of performance standards, measuring actual performance, comparing the deviation

between standards and actual performance, and taking corrective action (Gannon, 1988, p.365).

The controlling process is an important part of both corporate and bureaucratic organisations. The differences between corporate and bureaucratic control are found within five characteristics of a control system: measures, authority, flexibility, frequency and feedback (Stoner et al., 1985, pp.737-738). The orientation of these features in the corporate control process is towards outcomes. In the bureaucratic controlling process they are oriented towards inputs.

Corporate Control is Outcomes Oriented

The first characteristic of the controlling process, measuring, examines the standards used and the number of times subordinates are subjected to measures. Firstly, the standards used in corporate controlling are predetermined. They are developed in the planning process through an analysis of both the internal and external environment. Secondly, the number of performance measures are set and balanced. In the planning process, budgets, performance indicators and a formal management information system stipulate the number of significant controls to be used and assist managers in resisting the temptation to impose further controls when faced with problems or difficulties.

Increasing controls when problems arise diffuses the impact and effectiveness of important planned controls. A set number of controls avoids over-controlling and provides:

> ...a formal method of making available to management the accurate and timely information necessary to facilitate the decision making process and enable the organisation's planning, control and operational functions to be carried out effectively (Stoner et al., 1985, p.785).

A management information system in an outcomes oriented control process can comprise of a variety of internal and external informational sources. Internally, managers need timely and accurate information on the performance of the organisational unit. Performance appraisal and weekly, monthly or quarterly reports from staff are feedback strategies which can be built into a formal management information system. Externally, managers require information on trends which will affect what the organisational unit produces. For example, consumer needs provide external information which has a bearing upon production. As a result, the management of information, both internally and externally, constitutes a steering mechanism designed to keep programs and projects 'on track' toward organisational goals.

The second feature of the controlling process is authority. In corporate controlling the authority to set standards and the number of measures selected is shared with those responsible for implementation. This approach is based on the presumption that employees will work harder to meet outcomes if they perceive controls as realistic and reasonable. Consequently, corporate controlling is based upon predetermined standards collaboratively set between management and those affected by outcomes.

Staff participation in goal setting attempts to create an internal control mechanism which limits the need for external controls. Stoner et al. (1985, p.458) explain that 'internalisation' occurs when:

> ...organisational members learn new values, attitudes and behaviours
> when they find themselves in situations which require these changes
> for effective performance.

When employees identify with and accept organisational directions as their own they are more inclined to monitor their own behaviour in relation to achieving desired outcomes. In addition to participation in goal setting, the human resource

management strategy of staff induction or job orientation provides a training technique designed to have new employees internalise organisational values and expected behaviours. Furthermore, the delegation of responsibility for implementation to work groups is an organising strategy which further encourages employees, who have predetermined organisational goals to take them on as their own.

The third characteristic of the controlling process is flexibility. Corporate control maintains a flexible approach to organisational control. Flexibility creates the need for decisions regarding the number of standards and measures, the combination of control types (steering, screening or post-action) and the types of measures (qualitative or quantitative). Such decisions attempt to keep the control system organisationally realistic while making it possible for the organisation to change direction in the face of adverse conditions or new opportunities. In other words, corporate controlling does not stipulate one particular set of performance standards across the whole system.

The fourth feature of the controlling process is frequency. This feature relates to the predictability of measures within the control system. Corporate controlling, which specifies a set number of measures, maintains that the relationship between controls and productivity is enhanced if the frequency of measurements equate to a few random checks. Although the nature of the production process will influence frequency, corporate controlling believes that a random approach helps to overcome problems which arise when managers leave the gathering of information to a time which is convenient to them. A convenient time in the busy schedule of managers either never arrives or arrives at the same time everytime and therefore makes data collecting predictable. Predictability, which informs employees as to when performance measures will occur, can affect outcomes when workers adjust their work practices to meet production quotas only at the time of measurement.

The final feature of the controlling process is feedback. In the corporate controlling process, feedback is usually informal and used as a form of corrective action. For example, informal strategies, such as, 'management by walking around' and an 'open door policy' allow information to be gathered and for timely and accurate feedback to be provided to those responsible for achieving outcomes (Gannon, 1988, p.370). Corporate controlling maintains that performance feedback should be directed towards those who are undertaking the implementation of the activity under review because:

> The individuals whose actions are being monitored are usually in the best position to take whatever corrective action is necessary, because they are the closest to the activities being controlled (Stoner et al., 1985, p.738).

The provision of performance feedback is the closest that corporate control gets to process intervention. As noted above, the responsibility for adjusting operations rests with those responsible for implementation while the manager continues to monitor and evaluate these adjustments in terms of results. Managers who use feedback to refocus attention upon planned objectives and to initiate corrective action demonstrate a controlling process which is outcomes oriented.

Bureaucratic Control is Input Oriented

The first characteristic of the controlling process, measuring, in a bureaucracy is based upon historical standards and measures. Historical standards are related to the past experiences of the organisation. Therefore performance is measured against past procedures and practices. Consequently, as standards build up over the years so too do the number of measures (rules). Moreover, managers caught between production pressures and resistant workers develop and enforce more and more tight rules as a means of control (Schein and Greiner, 1984, p.391). Tactically, bureaucratic managers react to feedback on problems in order to eliminate uncertainties (Miller, 1977, p.342).

In bureaucratic controlling, the authority to set standards and the number of measures is centralised. In other words, the bureaucratic characteristic of unity of command sees upper-level management with the power and authority to set policies and rules. For example, in the Western Australian education system, prior to the introduction of *Better Schools* in 1987, schools would receive policy statements from the Office of the Director General. These statements would outline how schools were to handle certain problems, such as homework or uniforms in primary schools.

The obsession for control in public bureaucracies stems from accountability for actions to politicians, unions and the general public (Allison, 1988, p.287; and, Mintzberg, 1979, pp.319-320). Therefore the authority to set standards and measures extends beyond policies and rules to include operational procedures. The authority for establishing operational procedures rests with line managers who write job descriptions as a means of prescribing the use of personnel and materials in order to routinise and standardise the flow of work throughout the organisational unit. Again, it was common to find in Western Australian schools, prior to 1987, policy files written by the principal specifying how the children were to rule up their page, when reading was to be conducted, which reading books were to be used by which year groups, how algorithms were to be set out and so on.

The hard and fast rules and procedures of the bureaucracy are used to 'tether functionaries to their post' (Burns, 1971, pp.52-53). This approach highlights the third feature of the controlling process - flexibility. Bureaucratic controlling maintains a rigid control system. Firstly, historical or traditional standards do not change. Secondly, the bureaucracy's centralised decision making process sees the application of standards consistent throughout the entire organisation. And thirdly, job descriptions and procedure statements rigidly hold the whole organisation to the same operational level of efficiency. Emy and Hughes (1991, p.409) provide a neat summary of the inflexibility of the bureaucratic control system:

The principle of specialisation of function is meant to increase productivity, the hierarchy of authority and the system of rules make for certainty in decisions, and the impersonality of the system implies that the same decision can be repeated in the same circumstances. Decisions are not made arbitrarily. The idea was to create a system which was technically efficient.

The fourth feature of the controlling process is frequency. The large centralised bureaucracy tends to collect quantitative data on a regular basis. There is a consistent upward flow of information which keeps tabs on what is happening in all parts of the organisation. The use of direct supervision and many regular statistical returns keeps supervisors informed while subordinates continue to operate in the dark until instructed to change. Mintzberg (1979, p.319) provides an excellent example of this phenomenon by quoting a Ford Assembly Division general foreman describing his work:

> I refer to my watch all the time. I check different items. About every hour I tour my line. About six thirty, I'll tour labor relations to find out who is absent. At seven, I hit the end of the line. I'll check paint, check for scratches and damage. Around ten I'll start talking to all the foremen. I make sure they're all awake, they're in the area of their responsibility (quoted in Terkel, 1972, p.186).

This foreman, after direct supervision, may submit a bland productivity report at the end of each week or month. As part of the overall management information system, this report would then filter up through the organisation. Like the many hundreds of reports and other statistical returns floating slowly towards the surface of the bureaucracy this report would be diluted by various technicians attempting to turn the bland information into facts which will lend themselves to decision making (Mintzberg, 1979, pp.343-345).

The frequency of measures maintains an upward flow which filters performance information. However, the fifth characteristic of the controlling process, feedback is amplified as it moves down the organisation from supervisor to subordinate. Feedback in a bureaucracy radiates from the centre of the organisation, from
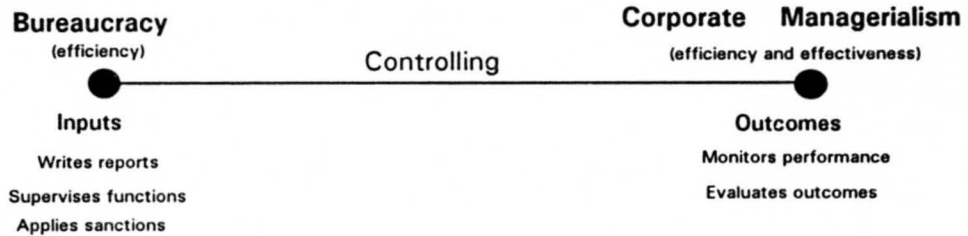
supervisory level to supervisory level, in an effort to fine tune performance (Mintzberg, 1979, p.321). Unlike corporate controlling, employees in the bureaucracy take no responsibility for corrective action. As functionaries they have little idea of the impact of the work they do and will continue to perform each task until directed by the line manager to change. Thus there are frequent reports about employees and feedback returns as punitive sanctions designed to fine tune their performance. This approach reinforces the paternal nature of the bureaucracy and the dependency of the staff in a system which does not allow them to be responsible for their own actions. For example, Gannon (1988, p.371) explains:

> ...a manager may allow a new employee to work for six months, after which she may evaluate the employee's performance as substandard and take corrective action, such as a reprimand.

This approach is in marked contrast to counselling and coaching of new employees as a means to having them take personal responsibility for performance standards. While corporate managers counsel and coach, bureaucratic managers use rules to ensure routine functions are carried out correctly.

In summary, bureaucratic control does not require managers with skills in monitoring and evaluating. In contrast to corporate managers, the line managers in the bureaucracy need knowledge of organisational rules and procedure and skills in direct supervision and report writing. Corporate controlling requires line mangers who are able to monitor and evaluate information at the operational level. Table 8 summarises the difference between bureaucratic and corporate controlling.

TABLE 8
BUREAUCRATIC AND CORPORATE CONTROLLING

Bureaucracy
(efficiency)
Controlling
Corporate   Managerialism
(efficiency and effectiveness)

Inputs
Writes reports
Supervises functions
Applies sanctions

Outcomes
Monitors performance
Evaluates outcomes

CONCLUSION

The analysis conducted in this chapter provides a conceptual framework for the evaluation of the Fairmont model. In summary form, this framework is presented as Table 9.

In essence, to make a final observation, the literature suggests that primary school principals are in a state of transition from a bureaucratic mode of operation to a corporate management style. This is evident in the underlying economic rationalism reflected in the broader public sector reform trends and the demands for decentralised decision making and localised autonomy from the effective schools movement. There is a need for increased understanding of corporate managerial skills if we are to understand more fully the impact of current changes in school management upon primary school principals.

TABLE 9

CORPORATE MANAGEMENT FRAMEWORK

PROCESS	ORIENTATION	MANAGEMENT FUNCTIONS
Planning	Proactive	• Sets goals • Identifies problems • Budgets • Writes performance indicators • Establishes a management information system • Writes a school mission statement
Organising	Loosely-Coupled	• Manages groups • Delegates tasks • Negotiates • Resolves conflict
Leading	Bottom-Up	• Enhances participation in goal setting • Uses interpersonal communication • Focuses on organisational values and goals
Controlling	Outcomes Oriented	• Monitors performance • Evaluates outcomes

CHAPTER 8
METHODOLOGY

This chapter outlines the research methodology upon which the evaluation of the Fairmont model has been designed. The initial part conceptualises evaluation as a particularistic, political and decision making activity. The second component analyses in more detail a number of methodological issues associated with the use of a naturalistic case study approach. The final part presents an account of the Stufflebeam CIPP framework for program evaluation and the justification for its use. It describes the data collection process, the evaluation of the Fairmont model, and validation procedures used throughout.

EVALUATION

Simons (1987, p.7), in her review of the theoretical development of evaluative inquiry in education, concludes that evaluation is a multi-purpose activity:

> So we now have a contemporary profile of evaluation, based on the arguments of its leading theorists, that characterises evaluation as a practical, particularistic, political, persuasive, educative service.

The following discussion deals only with the particularistic, political and decision making aspects of evaluation. The reason for this variation to Simon's view is because evaluation as a practical activity is considered within the particularistic characteristic and that the section on decision making is a combination of the persuasive and educational service elements.

Evaluation as Particularistic

According to Simons (1987), program evaluation has advanced over the past 20 years from a wide ranging to a particularistic activity. There has been a shift of focus from the impact of a policy or program initiative upon a whole system to its affect upon a particular educational setting. The primary outcome of this refocusing applies more or less exclusively to the setting in which the initiative is implemented. 'Evaluation of the particular' gained credibility as an evaluative process through the illumination it provides. Compared with the traditional experimental model, it helps to expose the possible contextual reasons as to why a policy or a particular project initiative may have failed. Unlike the traditional approach, it tells the story of implementation while sifting through the many contextual factors which influenced a program's success.

Telling the story of the particular often involves a case study approach (MacDonald, 1971). The evaluator's task in the case study is to give priority to what is happening in a particular setting and to be sensitive to the exception which can be more important than the rule (Cronbach, 1975). Despite this development, policy writers still seek evaluation outcomes which will guide decision making in relation to a whole variety of situations and therefore, in practice, a strong desire for generalisations still exists (Simons, 1987, p.11).

Apart from this pressure on evaluators to draw conclusions from findings which can be universally applied, the general view of evaluation sees it as an inquiry into the idiosyncratic:

> Although evaluators vary in the degree to which they should contribute to general theories of education and change, or even more broadly to social theory, there is now agreement that the primary task is to elucidate the values and/or effects of a particular project, programme, or policy at a particular point in time in a particular place (Simons, 1987, p.12).

Evaluation as Political

Focusing upon a particular program or project can lead to evaluation being perceived as a political activity. Hamilton et al. (1977, p.25) make the claim that evaluation is an ideological activity. So do Weiss (1975) and MacDonald (1974) whose views can be summarised as follows:

- evaluation is usually of political decisions in the form of programs and policies;
- evaluation outcomes are often debated in the political arena and provide the basis of further decision making; and,
- evaluation as a process has the capacity to influence changing power structures of competing interest groups by legitimising certain political goals, programs and reform strategies.

In general, theorists accept the political nature of the evaluation process although there are those who argue, that as a form of research, evaluation can and should be separated from the political or social use of knowledge (Cronbach et al., 1980; House, 1980; MacDonald, 1974). In other words, evaluators should be able to detach themselves from the subject in a way usually associated with the objectivity of scientific research and thereby evade political influence. However, Kazier et al. (1973) feel that any isolation from such influence is an illusion. Although an evaluator, in taking up the role of researcher, may claim control of the inquiry, in reality the majority of evaluations are externally controlled. Often project or policy evaluations are funded by government or quasi-government agencies who define the problem and maintain ownership of the results (Simons, 1987, p.15). As such they highlight the ethical problems associated with evaluations exemplified by the old adage 'he who pays the piper calls the tune'.

Evaluation as a political activity places major significance on the use of knowledge. This, in turn, raises ethical questions related to the validity of findings. In other words, while it is important to acknowledge evaluation as a political activity it is

equally important, given the persuasive nature of evaluation, to ensure that the validity of outcomes is based upon a balanced consideration of all views from all interest groups. As House (1980, pp.72-73) points out:

> Evaluative argument is at once less certain, more particularized, more personalized, and more conducive to action than is research information.

Evaluation has developed as a service activity over the last twenty to thirty years because of its persuasiveness and conduciveness to action (Simons, 1987, p.18). As a service activity, evaluation has been closely linked to educational decision making.

Evaluation as Decision Making

Cronbach (1963) drew attention to the capacity of evaluation to provide information for the purpose of decision making. Stufflebeam et al. (1971, p.311) also saw evaluation as an important step in a rational decision making process for administrators. He suggested that evaluation was a vital technique required to provide the necessary information for judging alternatives.

Evaluation as a decision making activity relates only to the provision of information. It does not suggest that the evaluator can assume to be the decision maker. Instead, decision making is part of the political process and not the responsibility of the person collecting the information (Simons, 1987, p.19).

In decision making, the information provided by evaluation can be either formative or summative (Scriven, 1967). A summative evaluation relates to the provision of information for the purpose of judging the success or overall worth of a policy or program. A formative evaluation is seen as a means of learning about a policy or program. In other words, it does not relate directly to immediate decision making but

helps to inform and guide understanding, thereby taking a longer term view in relation to decision making. More recently, evaluation has leant towards this longer term view which seeks to develop and improve the effectiveness of initiatives as opposed to the provision of information for immediate judgements.

This discussion, in terms of decision making, points out how evaluation is really a service activity for decision makers. Evaluation is not in the business of decision making but through the information it provides is linked to the decision making process.

In summary, this brief account of evaluation illustrates the legitimate role evaluation has in focusing on the effects of a political decision. Such decisions are evidenced in the form of a particular policy or project, in a particular educational setting, for the purpose of gathering information to enhance our understanding and improvement of the initiative and to influence future decisions. This role depicts evaluation more as "pluralistic policy research than experimental research from where it stemmed" (Simons, 1987, p.20). Given this characteristic of evaluation it is pertinent to consider it as a form of naturalistic inquiry as opposed to experimental or positivistic research.

NATURALISTIC EVALUATION

Naturalistic evaluation is the generic term which has come to describe a variety of approaches which have been developed as alternatives to the traditional positivist model of evaluation. The evaluation of the Fairmont model utilises a case study approach which fits within a naturalistic paradigm (Simons, 1987, p.24). That is, it uses a qualitative rather than a quantitative approach. The justification for this approach is contained within the literature on social science research and educational evaluation. Hammersley and Atkinson (1983) explain that qualitative research or

'naturalism' has grown to be perceived as the proper social research method as a reaction to the many criticisms of quantitative method or 'positivism'. And, Fetterman (1988) maintains that educational evaluation has shifted towards qualitative techniques and away from a rationalist positivist approach. In other words, qualitative techniques are perceived as the appropriate tool for educational evaluation.

Positivism, as a logical scientific methodology, gained a dominant position over naturalism in the social sciences in the 1930s and 40s (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1983, pp.3-4). According to Hammersley and Atkinson, positivism consists of three major characteristics, namely:

- it uses experimental design based on logical quantitative measurement of variables;
- it generalises findings to suggest they can be applied across all situations given the right set of circumstances;
- it gives priority to directly observable data [8] and develops standardised procedures in order to ensure all findings are testable across a wide front.

Supporters of positivist methodology believe that evaluation should be based on a quantifiable experimental research model. This approach, which demands the control of variables and objectivity, is considered able to do more then just speculate about causal relationships because findings and hypotheses can be tested again and again in various situations (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1983, pp.5-6). In other words, the validity of research findings rests primarily in their capacity to be reproduced. However, the belief in truth through universal application is seen by others as narrowly defining the world as a single unchanging reality. Doubts regarding the capacity of the researcher to generalise findings and to maintain objectivity have helped to further the move towards qualitative evaluation methodology.

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[8] According to Hughes (1980, pp.20-21), positivists have an aversion to metaphysics and believe that the social sciences, like the natural sciences, consists of a logical approach which deals with facts as opposed to values. They maintain that reality comprises of what is available to the senses.

Since the 1970s many social scientists have described the experimental model as inadequate for the evaluation of educational programs. They argued that the positivist approach experiences difficulty with the wide variety of contextual issues associated with program implementation, such as accounting for differing values, underlying expectations and political assumptions (House, 1980; Hamilton, 1977). They see naturalistic methods, such as unstructured interviews and participant/direct observation, as deliberately involving the evaluator in the wide range of values and opinions in an attempt to deal with social context (Simons, 1987, p.22). A useful summary (Table 10) of the differences between a positivist and a naturalist approach to evaluation is offered by Guba and Lincoln (1982, p.237).

TABLE 10
AXIOMATIC DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE RATIONALISTIC AND NATURALISTIC
PARADIGMS

SUBJECT OF AXIOM	PARADIGM	
	RATIONALISTIC	NATURALISTIC
Reality	Single, tangible, convergent, fragmentable	Multiple, intangible, divergent, holistic
Inquirer/respondent relationship	Independent	Interrelated
Nature of truth statements	Context-free generalisations-nomothetic statements-focus on similarities	Context-bound working hypotheses-idiographic statements-focus on differences
Attribution/explanation of action	'Real' causes; temporally precedent or simultaneous; manipulable; probabilistic	Attributional shapers; interactive (feedforward and feedback); non-manipulable, plausible
Relation of values to inquiry	Value-free	Value-bound

Since the 1970s many social scientists have described the experimental model as inadequate for the evaluation of educational programs. They argued that the positivist approach experiences difficulty with the wide variety of contextual issues associated with program implementation, such as accounting for differing values, underlying expectations and political assumptions (House, 1980; Hamilton, 1977). They see naturalistic methods, such as unstructured interviews and participant/direct observation, as deliberately involving the evaluator in the wide range of values and opinions in an attempt to deal with social context (Simons, 1987, p.22). A useful summary (Table 10) of the differences between a positivist and a naturalist approach to evaluation is offered by Guba and Lincoln (1982, p.237).

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Relation of values to inquiry	Value-free	Value-bound

According to Guba and Lincoln, naturalistic evaluation interrelates with a particular single subject and its corresponding values as it seeks multiple truths and divergence (Simons, 1987, p.24).   These characteristics of naturalistic evaluation have led to methodological criticisms relating to validation and universal application because evaluation, as a variant of research, has been subject to the same demands for maximum rigour although opting to work in the 'real' world instead of the laboratory (Guba and Lincoln, 1986, p.73).   Moreover, Simons (1987, p.25) adds:

> The problem of validity bedevils most researchers, evaluation researchers even more so as the claims to validity can be met in so many ways.

The question of validity, then, can be viewed from two distinctive vantage points, positivism/rationalistic and naturalism (House, 1980, p.249).   The rational positivist perspective of validity covers the technical objective dimension of evaluation and focuses on replication and the reliability of measurement.   House criticises the objectivity associated with validity in a positivist paradigm by explaining that the credibility of findings is based largely upon a belief in the methodology, which more often then not, fails to reside within those evaluated.   Furthermore, he argues, positivists believe in the capacity of experimental research data gathering instruments to identify and establish facts.   For example, they tend to maintain an unquestioning belief in the capacity of such instruments as the 'questionnaire' and 'statistical analysis' to discover the 'truth'.

In response to the positivist belief that 'truth' is validated through objectivity, correct sampling, statistical analysis, testing and replication, the naturalist approach aims to provide 'thick description' (Geertz, 1973) of a particular 'slice of life' (Wolf and Tynitz, 1976-77) at a particular point in time.   Guba and Lincoln (1982, p.235) explain:

> ...it [naturalistic evaluation] offers a contextual relevance and richness unmatched by any other paradigm. It displays a sensitivity to process virtually excluded in paradigms stressing control and experimentation. It is driven by theory grounded data; the naturalist does not search for data that fits his or her theory but develops a theory to explain the data.

The thick contextual richness of naturalistic evaluation provides a counter to criticisms that research is responsible for providing theories for universal application or generalisations. This richness makes it possible for the audience to assess for themselves the transferability and application of research findings into their area (Stake, 1978, p.6). Furthermore, Merriam (1988, p.170) points out:

> Qualitative research, however, is not seeking to isolate laws of human behaviour. Rather, it seeks to describe and explain the world as those in the world interpret it.

Despite the wide spreading rejection of positivist methodology there still exists those who worry about the demand for a set of criteria by which naturalistic evaluation can be judged in terms of trustworthiness. In an attempt to meet the scientific demand for rigour, Table 11 provides a comparative list of criteria for trustworthiness between the positivist and naturalist paradigms.

TABLE 11

CRITERIA FOR TRUSTWORTHINESS

Positivist	Naturalist
Internal Validity	Credibility
External Validity	Transferability
Reliability	Dependability
Objectivity	Confirmability

(Guba and Lincoln, 1982, pp.246-247)

A brief summary of the four criteria listed in the naturalistic paradigm will assist in further clarifying the methods which have been developed to address the questions and concerns related to trustworthiness or validity of research findings for this study.

The criterion of credibility refers to the truth of the inquiry in terms of whether the claims made are valid. In naturalistic evaluation 'truth' resides with the respondents and the unbiased interpretation of data by the evaluator. Consequently, validity is claimed through methods which ensure prolonged interaction with respondents in the field. Other techniques which are said to enhance the credibility of findings are: participant observation of respondent behaviour and interaction; triangulation of data; the discussion of the researcher's interpretations with an impartial peer; and, member checks.

Transferability refers to the applicability of research findings to another situation. This particular criterion relates to the positivist's demand for generalisations or the universal application of research findings. As noted previously, naturalistic evaluation addresses the need for transferability of research through the use of 'thick description'. This approach provides the audience with the level of contextual information needed to judge for themselves the transferability of findings. Naturalistic evaluation maintains that transferability is the audiences' responsibility while the evaluator's task is to provide the details by which judgements can be made.

Dependability refers to the replication of the research project in another situation. In naturalistic evaluation it is not possible to duplicate the research process exactly from one situation to another. However, for those seeking this type of validation some techniques, such as stepwise replication and dependability audits have been developed.

Confirmability attempts to deal with the positivist's demand for objectivity. Rather than establishing their objectivity, the evaluator within the naturalist paradigm focuses

on ensuring that findings are confirmed by respondents. That is, respondents are given the opportunity to comment on research outcomes. Throughout this approach the evaluator assumes a level of subjectivity in which his/her opinions and interpretations are used to develop a balanced portfolio of the views of all interest groups who are then involved in confirming the outcomes.

Some of the techniques which have been mentioned in this brief discussion of the four criteria for trustworthiness have been used in the evaluation of the Fairmont model. The details relating to the specific techniques used are highlighted in the remainder of the chapter which considers the use the CIPP model for program evaluation, data collection and data analysis.

THE CIPP MODEL FOR PROGRAM EVALUATION

Stufflebeam's CIPP approach to program evaluation provides the broad framework for the evaluation of the Fairmont model for professional development. Its selection was based on its ability to serve the needs of decision makers and accommodate a naturalistic approach to the evaluation of the Fairmont model.

To justify the continuation of the Fairmont model, and any modifications to it, decision makers need to consider a wide range of issues. The CIPP framework is comprehensive and enables the justification of the Fairmont model to be evaluated in terms of these questions:

- Does it meet the corporate management needs of primary school principals?
- Does it meet these needs more effectively than a competing model?
- Will any modifications improve its capacity to meet these needs?
- What were the outcomes?

The CIPP model, as a tool for decision making (Stufflebeam, 1971, p.311), meets the need to inform the decision makers within the Fairmont district of the development and effectiveness of the model for enhancing the corporate managerial skills of primary school principals.   For example, Simons (1987, p.19) points out that the CIPP model was:

> ...directly tied to serving administrators' decisions in a rational sequence of stages built, as it was, upon a rational theory of decision making.

The information provided by the evaluation on the Fairmont model is intended to serve the decision makers in two ways. Firstly, at the formative level, the evaluation aims to keep the decision makers up-to-date in regard to the implementation of the Fairmont model.   Secondly, at the summative level, the evaluation will provide decision makers with details regarding the overall effectiveness of the program.

In addition to being a comprehensive model which serves the interests of the decision makers in the Fairmont district, the CIPP framework is flexible. It does not stipulate any one particular method by which data should be collected and analysed. Instead it identifies key areas and questions for investigation and leaves the researcher to select an appropriate information gathering method.   As such, the   CIPP approach to program evaluation allows for the use of a qualitative case study strategy.

Thirdly, there is a certain cohesion within the framework, although the four types of evaluation (context, input, process, product) can be conducted as separate investigations. Table 12 presents a modification of Stufflebeam's cohesion flow chart to illustrate how it fits the evaluation of the Fairmont model.

TABLE 12
Cohesion Flowchart
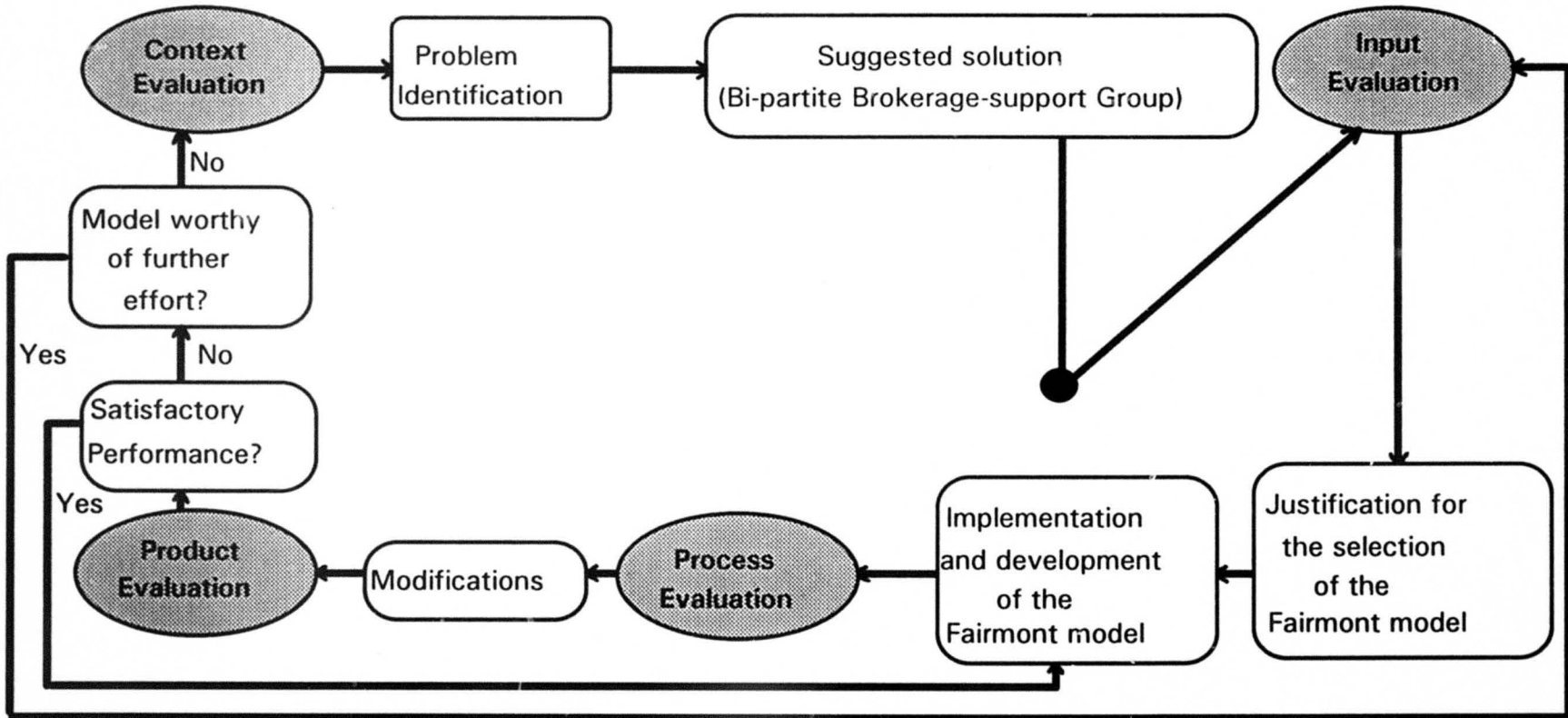
To further the claims for the selection of the CIPP model for program evaluation, it is worthwhile to concentrate on the perceived advantages of each of its four components in relation to the evaluation of the Fairmont model.

Context Evaluation

Stufflebeam (1983) advocates the use of a context evaluation in order to determine whether there is a need for a change to a system. The information gathered through a context evaluation can help to clarify the problem/s which need to be solved and the formulation of objectives. The main function of a context evaluation, according to Stufflebeam (1983, p.128), is to:

> ...assess the object's overall status, to identify its deficiencies, to inventory its strengths at hand that could be used to remedy the deficiencies, and to diagnose the problems whose solution would improve the object's well being.

The optimum outcome of the context evaluation, according to Stufflebeam, "would lead to a decision about whether to introduce some kind of change to the system" (1988, p.126). It was the researcher's task to gather data which identified possible problems associated with the professional development process of the Fairmont model. The justification of the model is based partly on its ability to provide professional development activities which address the corporate management needs of primary school principals.

The context evaluation involved the use of open-ended one-to-one interviews to gather participants' perceptions of the model's ability to address their corporate management needs. Activities generated by the Fairmont model and the principals' perceptions of their professional development needs have been compared to the list of corporate management tasks identified in chapter 7. This comparison made it possible to show which aspects of corporate management the model was effectively dealing with, which

areas of professional development it was providing that were not related to corporate management, and which aspects of corporate management training that were not being addressed.

Input Evaluation

An input evaluation should be conducted if no obvious solution to a problem emerges from the context evaluation. Stufflebeam (1983, p.130) says:

> The main orientation of an input evaluation is to help prescribe a program by which to bring about needed changes.

The input evaluation, in this study, occurred after the selection of the model. Therefore its purpose cannot be to assist decision makers in selecting "..sources of support, solution strategies and procedural designs" as advocated by Stufflebeam (1983, p.129).

Throughout this study, then, the question the input evaluation seeks to answer was:

> Is there justification for the selection of the Fairmont model over the I/D/E/A model as a means of providing for the corporate managerial needs of primary school principals? [9]

This limited comparison is based on the fact that the I/D/E/A program, which was introduced into the district in 1990 and ran independently to the Fairmont model, constituted an alternative source of professional development for local primary school principals.

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[9] I/D/E/A is a principals' in-service program which was compiled by James C. LaPlant and the staff of the Institute for the Development of Educational Activities Inc. in Ohio, USA. It is a two year professional development program which encourages continuous professional improvement through collegiality and sees the school as the centre for change.

The criteria used by the evaluator to assess the capacity of the I/D/E/A program to meet the corporate management needs of principals will arise from the context evaluation, literature review and interviews. Stufflebeam supports this as a legitimate function of an input evaluation. When outlining the number of applications of an input evaluation he states (1983, p.131): "Another is to assess one's existing program - whether or not it seems to be working - against what is done elsewhere and proposed in the literature."

To meet this aim, the input evaluation of the Fairmont model consisted of several comparisons. Firstly, it compared the I/D/E/A program to the framework summarised on page 85 to determine how corporate managerial it was in nature. Secondly, it compared the corporate managerial content of the I/D/E/A program and the Fairmont model with the principals' important corporate managerial needs as identified through the context evaluation. Thirdly, it compared the principals' perceptions of the capacity of the I/D/E/A program with that of the Fairmont model to meet their corporate managerial needs. And finally, it compared the characteristics of both programs with what the literature describes as successful professional development practices.

Process Evaluation

The process evaluation was conducted on an on-going basis throughout 1989-1990. The information gathered during that period was fed back to the representative planning committee and principals' group. The objective was to provide informative feedback to decision makers regarding the modification of the model for the purpose of overcoming difficulties in planning and implementing. Stufflebeam (1983) helps to clarify the role of the process evaluator when working with a dynamic evolving model. He (1983, p.132) says:

Another objective is to provide guidance for modifying or explicating
the plan as needed, since not all aspects of a plan can be determined in
advance and since some of the initial decisions may later prove to be
flawed.

The implementation of the model involved two important phases. The first phase was
the preparation of a plan of professional development activities by the representative
planning committee and its acceptance by the district superintendent and school
principals. The second phase was the co-ordination and arrangement of activities
stipulated in the plan by the task groups.

The key question to be answered in the process evaluation was:

To what extent did any modifications to the model affect its capacity
to provide for the corporate management needs of primary school
principals?

To answer this question, data on intended processes and planning procedures for 1989
are compared with what actually occurred in 1990.

The 1989 data came from document analysis and participant observations at meetings
of the representative planning committee and during the fourth term conference. The
reasearcher, in addition to fulfilling the research role, was also the primary school
deputy principal representative on the representative planning committee. This
situation ensured the researcher's presence at planning meetings and the fourth term
conference which, in turn, enabled him to make observations and present reports on
the progress of the model. This was done unobtrusively in order to gain an overview
of how the model was being implemented.

After examining the intended processes of the Fairmont model, the process evaluation
then collected data on the actual implementation of the model in order to identify any
modifications. Particular changes were further explored through interviews with

principals to determine their impact upon the provision of corporate managerial training.

The aim of the interviews, observations and document analysis was to determine any difficulties in implementation. This required the data gathered regarding modifications to the model to be considered in terms of improving the model's capacity to provide corporate management training as already identified from the literature.

The information gathered through the process evaluation provided valuable feedback to the representative planning committee. It gave them information on how the implementation of the model was proceeding and, where necessary, raised awareness of any further modifications to assist in the implementation process. The final component of the CIPP model, unlike the formative nature of the process evaluation, took a summative perspective for the purpose of assisting decision makers with accountability in relation to the provision of professional development for primary school principals in the Fairmont district.

Product Evaluation

The product evaluation should assess the overall attainments of a program. According to Stufflebeam (1983, p.40):

> The main objective of a product evaluation is to ascertain the extent to which the program has met the needs of the group it is intended to serve.

An overall product evaluation would assess the long term effects of a program. Ideally, this should be done by comparing actual outcomes against the program objectives. The broad range of people affected by the professional development of

primary school principals are students, teachers and parents.   Ideally, a product evaluation would tap their perceptions about whether the Fairmont model produced a change in the principals' behaviour.

The evaluation of the Fairmont model was unable to conduct a product evaluation to the extent advocated by Stufflebeam.   Time did not allow for such an in-depth investigation into the long-term effects of the program.   Therefore, it was limited to presenting the principals' perceptions of whether or not their corporate management needs were met and whether the program brought about changes in their behaviour.

A general evaluation in the form of a one page check sheet was administered by the task group to all the participants at the completion of each professional development activity.   Generally, these task group evaluations focused on the participant's perceptions of the degree to which they felt the professional development activity addressed their needs.

In addition to the task group evaluations, the researcher conducted interviews with all the primary school principals.   The purpose of this approach was to further clarify and check the results of the questionnaires and to search for intended and unintended outcomes, both positive and negative.

DATA COLLECTION

This chapter has already outlined some details regarding data collection.   Time has been spent on discussing interviews, document analysis and participant observation as data gathering instruments in naturalistic evaluation and the four components of the CIPP model.   The following account outlines the contextual issues which surrounded how the data were collected in the Fairmont district.

Data for the overall evaluation was collected from May 1989 to December 1990. Over this period of time three methods of data collection were used, namely: participant observation, document analysis and interviews. Of these, the interviewing of the principals was the predominant approach. During the data collection period, the researcher was a deputy principal of a large primary school in the main town centre of the Fairmont district. As such, he had the role of primary school deputy principals' representative on the Fairmont model's representative planning committee. Prior to taking up the position as deputy principal, he was employed for twelve months as the district education officer, during which time he interacted extensively with the primary school principals throughout the district in relation to their professional development.

In 1988, as the education officer in the Fairmont district, the researcher participated in meetings with local principals which were facilitated by an academic management consultant for the purpose of developing a bi-partite brokerage-support model - the precursor to the Fairmont model. In May 1989, as the president of the local primary deputy principals' association, he attended a session at the principals' conference in order to review the bi-partite brokerage-support model. It was at this conference that the details of the Fairmont model were developed and agreed upon.

The newly constituted Fairmont model comprised partly of a representative planning committee of which the researcher was a member. It was the function of the committee to oversee the development and implementation of the model and its proposed program of professional development for principals. Consequently, for over a period of three years (1988-1990) the researcher worked closely with local principals on the provision of their professional development in the Fairmont district. Given the nature of the representative planning committee's task and my level of involvement, participant observation was a natural and obvious technique for the gathering of data.

Although it goes without saying that the researcher in a naturalistic evaluation will interact with the group being studied, it is still important to note that he gained permission to take field notes during meetings and conferences for the purpose of recording observations related to the evaluation. It is estimated that seventy hours of observation occurred during the evaluation.

During the representative planning meetings, the researcher participated as an equal member by contributing to the discussion whilst at the same time maintaining notes on group processes, decisions, comments and other important observations. During each professional development conference, he made notes of important comments and observations while maintaining a less interactive presence than was the case at meetings of the representative planning committee. However, lunch and tea breaks provided him with the opportunity to informally interact with the principals.

In addition to participant observation, documents such as evaluation sheets completed by principals after each professional development conference and the minutes of representative planning committee meetings were analysed. This particular source of data was of minor importance in comparison to the interviews conducted with the fifteen primary school principals who participated in the program provided by the Fairmont model.

The formally arranged interviews were conducted on a one-to-one basis although there were occasions when, with consent, more than one interviewee was present. However, formal interviews were conducted at pre-arranged times convenient to the principal. As much time as a principal could allow was set aside for individual interviews. Each principal was formally interviewed on two occasions for an average of two hours per interview. Prior to these interviews the principal was contacted by phone to discuss the purpose of the interview and to arrange a time and place. In the case of principals located outside the main township of Fairmont, it was necessary on

occasions to schedule interviews for Saturday mornings when they were coming into town to shop or to travel out to their homes on the weekend. On two occasions interviews with these principals were conducted over the phone.

Incidental interviews were conducted whenever the opportunity arose. For example, an interview was conducted with three principals in the car travelling back to Fairmont after a conference in a smaller outlying town; on another occasion an interview was conducted on the golf course. Although the purpose of the interviews was pre-arranged and the researcher was prepared with an outline of the areas to be covered, all interviews both formally arranged and opportunistic were unstructured.

All interviews were taped after permission had been sought from the interviewee. Through the use of a micro cassette recorder it was possible to record even those interviews in the car and on the golf course. Transcripts for each interview were typed and returned to the interviewee. The researcher then contacted the interviewee after they had read the transcript to discuss important points they wanted to raise. This process meant that the fifteen principals were interviewed twice on a one-to-one basis, each of which were followed up in order to discuss their reaction to the transcripts. In addition, as mentioned above, a few informal interviews were conducted from time to time.

In summary, Table 13 sets the timeline over which the data were collected.

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TABLE 13
DATA COLLECTION TIMELINE

1989	
May	• Review of the bi-partite brokerage-support model and the beginning of the Fairmont model
May -December	• participant observation
May - December	• document analysis
October - December	• interviews
1990	
February - December	• participant observation
February - December	• document analysis
February - December	• interviews
1991	
March - November	• preparation of first draft
1992	
June - August	• Validation Interviews
March - November	• Final draft

During the collection of the data for the evaluation of the Fairmont model social and ethical considerations had to be taken into account. From a social perspective, it is important to note that the researcher's role as evaluator was negotiated with the district superintendent and the principals through the representative planning committee. As a result, legitimate entry into the field of study was gained.

The researcher's work in the district for three years was well known by the primary school principals. This had advantages and disadvantages. The main advantage was the rapport that already existed when the evaluation commenced. However, a significant disadvantage related to the possibility of 'over-rapport' (Ball, 1988; Hammersley and Atkinson, 1983, pp.98-100).

Generally, there are two possible problems associated with 'over-rapport' which are linked to how a researcher is perceived by the respondents. Firstly, groups within the field of study may believe the researcher to be strongly aligned with another faction.

This situation can inhibit the social mobility of the researcher and consequently limit the amount, quality or accuracy of the data collected. And secondly, there is a possibility that the researcher will rely too heavily on the perspectives of one particular group and, as a result, may fail to treat this particular group's views as problematic.

In the evaluation of the Fairmont model the possibility of these problems arising had to be monitored. For example, there was a risk that the principals located in schools outside the town centre of Fairmont might see the researcher as strongly aligned with the group of principals working in the township of Fairmont. To overcome this possible perception the researcher spent time at conferences and on the phone talking with principals from outlying schools. Moreover, he made special trips to schools in the more remote locations to talk with principals on their 'turf'.

Socially, time and effort was focused on avoiding the problem of 'over-rapport' in order to enhance the quality of the data collected. In addition to the social dimension, data collection required some important steps to be taken in connection with the ethical issue of confidentiality.
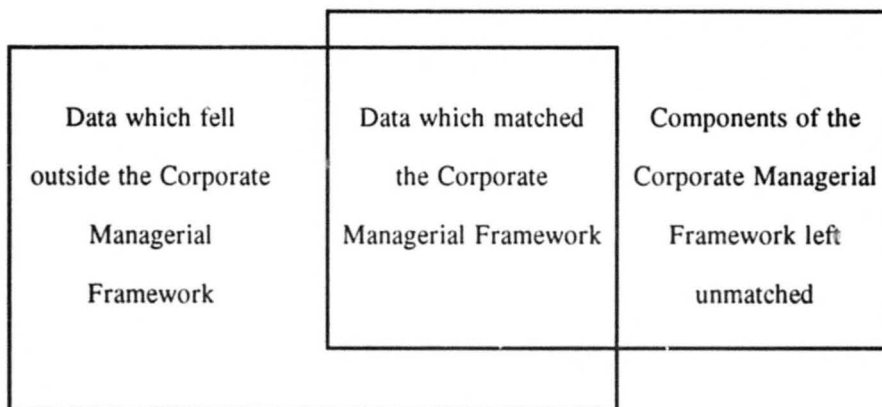
Three aspects of confidentiality were rigidly observed throughout this evaluation. Firstly, the purpose and outcomes of the overall project were carefully and clearly negotiated with all stakeholders either individually or through their representatives. Secondly, permission to use the tape recorder was sought prior to the commencement of every interview. When seeking consent, interviewees were informed of the transcript process and were reassured that they would be able to edit any part of the transcript by deleting, changing or adding comments. It was interesting to note that no individual refused to be tape recorded at any stage and the editing of transcripts by the interviewees tended to elicit valuable additional data. Thirdly, the district was

given a fictitious name and individual principals were given a coded symbol in order to preserve anonymity.

DATA ANALYSIS AND VALIDATION

As a qualitative study, the evaluation involved observations and interviews with all the primary school principals within the Fairmont district. Their perceptions and the observations were analysed against the conceptual framework, developed in chapter seven. This applied to participants' categories and meanings in relation to all four evaluations. In that way it was possible to build up a picture of the Fairmont model as a means to providing corporate managerial training. Table 14 presents the strategy for the analysis of the data.

TABLE 14
DATA ANALYSIS

Data which fell outside the Corporate Managerial Framework	Data which matched the Corporate Managerial Framework	Components of the Corporate Managerial Framework left unmatched

The matching of the data with the corporate managerial framework allowed for three outcomes. That is, the data matching process highlighted the matches and the mismatches as well as the components of the framework that were left unmatched. This produced an extensive picture of the significance of corporate managerialism in the role of the primary school principal and the Fairmont model's capacity to provide training in this area.

Throughout the evaluation all four components of the CIPP model for program evaluation were used in relation to the corporate managerial framework. However, gathering the respondent's perceptions was not restricted to the framework. As a result, all the primary school principals within the district were interviewed and field notes on observations and informal comments and conversations were maintained in order to generate 'thick descriptions' (Geertz, 1973) and 'working hypotheses' (Cronbach, 1975) as various assumptions were progressively redefined (Bohannon, 1981).

While the conceptual framework was not used to restrict the collection of data, it was designed to assist the evaluator in the analytical process by focusing specific attention on the corporate managerial functions of the primary school principals' role. Table 15 illustrates the corporate managerial focus associated with the analysis of data collected in each of the four evaluations.

TABLE 15
CORPORATE MANAGERIAL FOCUS

	THE ROLE OF THE PRIMARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL		
Context Evaluation			
Input Evaluation	Other	Corporate	Other
Process Evaluation	Roles	Management	Roles
Product Evaluation			

Prior to analysing the data against the conceptual framework, the question of the reliability of information had to be addressed. In this evaluation, respondent validation of data were an integral part of the research methodology. The following discussion sets out the thorough and complete involvement of all the primary school

principals in the verification of interpretations and findings at both the individual and whole group level.

During the actual data collection phase from June 1989 through to December 1990, an on-going process of validation was maintained at the individual level. That is, immediately after principals had discussed their views of the Fairmont model, a transcript of the interview was returned to them for verification. The interviewee was invited to edit the transcript by deleting inaccurate interpretations, adding further information and altering the text to clarify meaning. The following is an extract from the letter which accompanied each transcript:

> Dear _____ ,
>
> Enclosed is the transcript of the interview we had on _____ .
>
> The purpose of returning the transcript to you is to:
>
> 1. Have you verify it as an accurate account of the responses you believe you made.
> 2. To try and gather some further information from you for the purpose of adding clarity to the study.
>
> In order to achieve the above purpose could you please do the following:
>
> *   Read the transcript.
> *   Rewrite your response in the comments section if it is inaccurate or you feel, if asked the question again, you would not respond in the way that it has been transcribed.
> *   If you agree with the response to the question and can add further comment then please do so.
>
> Thank you for your participation and I look forward to receiving your comments.
>
> Yours sincerely,

In addition to the principals' active involvement in the validation of their personal taped recorded testimonies, they were also invited to participate in the validation of

the overall findings. The first draft of the evaluation contained the findings of each of the four evaluations. To confirm the accuracy of these findings a copy of the first draft with a covering letter was sent to each principal in June, 1992. The covering letter asked each of the principals to read the evaluations and to note down their reactions in preparation for the validation interview.

In the weeks after the dispatch of the first draft the evaluator contacted the principals by telephone to ensure that the evaluation had been received and to arrange an appropriate time to discuss their reactions to the findings. Due to the time lapse between the collection of the data and the supply of the first draft it was important, when arranging the interview, to ask principals to think back and to respond to the findings in terms of whether or not they reflected how they felt about the Fairmont model as it operated in 1990.

The time lapse between data collection and the first draft gave rise a second factor which affected the validation of the overall findings. That is, many of the principals involved in the 1990 professional development program offered by the Fairmont model, had relocated to other districts as result of transfers or promotions. Therefore, the level of interest in the development of the Fairmont model had waned. For example, one principal refused to be interviewed while another pointed out that she was going on 'long service leave' and would not be available for an interview. Consequently, of the original fifteen principals involved in the program only thirteen actually participated in the overall validation.

The validation interviews, which focused upon the overall findings, were conducted with individual principals. The individual scheduling of interviews meant that the validation process took from June till August 1992 to complete. The relocation of the researcher and many of the principals to different parts of the state saw all but one of the interviews conducted over the phone. Each interview, like those for the data

collection phase were tape recorded and took an average of two hours to complete. During this time the principal actively contributed by confirming, rejecting or amending aspects of the draft.

Material from the validation interviews was incorporated into this thesis in two ways. Firstly, where a particular finding drew support by all the principals it was used as confirmation while an across-the-board negative reaction saw a finding amended to more accurately reflect the views of the principals. And secondly, in the instance where a small percentage of the principals did not agree with a finding their views were added as a footnote in order to illustrate the perspective of their counter claim.

The validation process, while auditing the findings, also assisted in meeting an ethical consideration. During the validation interviews principals were able to comment on the confidentiality if they felt the earlier commitment made in regard to this matter had been neglected.

SECTION THREE
The Findings

CHAPTER 9
CONTEXT EVALUATION

The context evaluation, the first of the four evaluations of the Fairmont model, identifies the strengths of the program by clarifying the problems which need to be solved. The question it seeks to answer is:

> What corporate management needs does the Fairmont model address and how important and pervasive are they?

As part of the process for dealing with this issue, the context evaluation lists local principals' management training needs addressed by the Fairmont model (see Table 16, page 118). This prioritised list provides the focus for the context evaluation.

Two types of data are used to determine the importance and pervasiveness of the management training needs addressed by the Fairmont model. Firstly, the *Better Schools* report and relevant Ministry of Education policies are assessed against the corporate managerial framework to identify the system's perception of primary school principals' corporate managerial responsibilities. And secondly, interview data from local primary school principals' is analysed to determine their corporate managerial needs. Then, conclusions as to the importance and pervasiveness of the needs addressed by the model are drawn by centring upon the relationship between systemic needs and the local principals' view of the corporate managerial responsibilities of primary school principals.

In this chapter, and the three that follow, comments made by the Fairmont district school principals are quoted verbatim. When interviewed principals were given an undertaking that anonymity would be guaranteed in the reporting of what was said. To meet that undertaking and yet provide a sense of the interviewee's background, in terms of such variables as gender and level of experience related to the size of the

school they manage, the following codes or symbols have been adopted to reference the principals' comments.

M	Male
F	Female
1A	Class 1A Primary School (pre broad banding) that is approximately 20 -30 teaching staff and 300 -700 students
1	Class 1 Primary School (pre broad banding) that is approximately 12 -20 teaching staff and 150 - 300 students
2	Class 2 Primary School (pre broad banding) that is approximately 6 - 12 teaching staff and 70 - 150 students
3	Class 3 Primary School (pre broad banding) that is approximately 2- 6 teaching staff and 25 -70 students
.1	The decimal point and number individualises each interviewee within each of the levels of primary school listed above. Of the principals involved in the study there were two Class 1A principals, three Class 1 principals, two Class 2 principals and eight Class three principals.

MANAGEMENT TRAINING NEEDS ADDRESSED

In 1988, an academic management consultant from Perth was invited to interview Fairmont district principals to identify their management training needs. The prioritised list of needs that he produced was reviewed by local principals at their May 1989 conference and added to with other management training concerns. When agreement on the revised list was reached, principals were invited to vote on the list as a means of prioritising professional development needs. The result is presented as Table 16 (see page 118).

This list provided the source from which the Fairmont model's 1990 professional development and training program was drawn. The needs selected were: the writing of performance indicators; financial management and budgeting skills; and, motivation/awareness raising strategies. Of these, 'performance indicators' provided the focus of the first and third term conferences. The Term two conference dealt with

financial management/budgeting skills and the fourth term conference looked at motivation/awareness raising strategies. All these needs were corporate managerial in nature.

TABLE 16
THE FAIRMONT MODEL'S PRIORITISED LIST
OF TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT NEEDS

1.	Performance indicators
2.	Induction of new personnel
3.	Legal knowledge
4.	Financial management/budgeting skills
5.	Program evaluation techniques
6.	Time management strategies
7.	Administrative use of computers
8.	Motivation/awareness raising strategies
9.	Strategies to manage performance
10.	Networking
11.	Group management/process skills, plus co-ordinating and facilitating skills
12.	Managing personnel performance
13.	Monitoring - standards appraisal
14.	Staff appraisal and morale building strategies

The writing of performance indicators forms part of the corporate planning process. It increases the likelihood of observable data being collected to determine whether pre-determined outcomes have been achieved. Coverage of performance indicators in the Term one and three conferences addressed a technical aspect of the planning process. Principals were exposed to the skills of writing and using performance indicators. The Term one conference considered performance indicators from a theoretical perspective. It sought answers to questions concerned with the definition, development and use of performance indicators. In contrast, the Term three conference provided a practical workshop on the writing and use of performance indicators linked to the principals' role in school development planning.

Financial management and budgeting, like the use of performance indicators, forms part of the planning process both during budget development and performance

reporting cycles. However, overall financial management can be linked to organising, leading and controlling. During the Term two conference principals undertook training in financial management and budgeting in relation to planning. Initially they looked at the allocation of school funds. This raised the concept of cost centre management as a means of delegating responsibility to individuals and collaborative teams to make decisions regarding the use of financial resources. As a result, the Term two conference provided principals with skills in school budgeting procedures.

The third need, addressed at the Term four conference, related to corporate leadership. Although entitled motivation/awareness raising strategies, the actual conference focused upon strategies that principals could use to build and maintain an effective staff. It emphasised strategies for motivating staff participation in goal setting and program implementation. Consequently, it focused on collaboration and team building as a way of building morale and enthusiasm and, hence, encouraged a more committed approach to task completion.

Table 17 summarises the needs addressed by the Fairmont model in terms of training in corporate managerialism.

TABLE 17
PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING NEEDS
ADDRESSED BY THE FAIRMONT MODEL

Process	Orientation	Corporate Training Need
Planning:	Proactive	• skills in writing performance indicators • financial management/ budgeting skills
Organising:	Loosely-coupled	
Leading:	Bottom-up	• motivation/awareness raising strategies for adapting to change and maintaining staff self-esteem
Controlling:	Outcomes	

The prime focus of the training delivered by the Fairmont model was corporate managerial in nature.   The extent to which the program reflected systemic requirements and the principals' perceptions of their corporate managerial needs is covered in the following two sections.   These sections attempt to identify the importance and pervasiveness of the corporate managerial needs addressed by the Fairmont model.

SYSTEM'S PERCEPTION OF PRINCIPALS' RESPONSIBILITIES

The following analysis of the *Better Schools* report and relevant Ministry of Education policy sets out the primary schools principals' corporate managerial responsibilities as outlined by the system which, in turn, allows for a comparison between the needs addressed by the Fairmont model and the system's requirements.

Planning

Corporate planning is a rational process which involves a technical, mechanistic means of specifying objectives, identifying strategies for achievement and determining mechanisms for monitoring effectiveness.   As a planning process, it is founded on the formulation of aims, objectives, strategic plans, performance indicators, management information systems and budgets.   According to the Ministry of Education (1989, p.6), principals are responsible for the management and implementation of a school plan.   Moreover, they are responsible for the development of a planning process which identifies and reviews priority areas and the effectiveness of operational plans on a regular basis.

The school development plan, as a technical apparatus, structures the school's operations so as to focus resources on the achievement of student outcomes.   As a result, principals are expected to be familiar with and incorporate the following

planning components, as specified in School Development Planning: Policy and Guidelines (1990):

- *mission statements* as a means of clarifying and communicating the school's purpose;
- *performance indicators* as a means of determining the extent to which the school is achieving its purpose;
- *management information systems* to ensure necessary information is gathered in order to monitor the school's progress towards its purpose;
- *goal and priority setting* as the means by which to identify and specify the school's focus for improvement;
- *strategic plans* as specific programs intended to effectively address priorities;
- *budgeting* as an efficient means of allocating available resources to strategic plans.

These components highlight the principals' need for technical skills associated with the management of information, financial management and budgeting, the setting and prioritising of goals and the development of performance indicators. In addition to skills related to planning, the devolution of responsibilities to the school level has impacted upon the way schools are to be organised. Principals are expected, not only to maintain efficient and effective management practices for the purpose of achieving Ministry priorities, but also to create a democratic workplace. This expectation identifies the system's demand for principals to establish a 'loosely-coupled' corporate organisational style within schools. In other words, principals are responsible for developing organisational processes which allow teachers and parents to actively participate in setting the school's educational direction whilst remaining accountable for the achievement of Ministry goals.

Organising

Several changes to the principals' responsibilities provide evidence regarding the need to create a 'loosely-coupled' work environment. The responsibility for *staff*

management has created a need for organising a stable and effective staff team; and, the establishment of *school decision making groups, school development planning* and *program administration* necessitates the reorganisation of structures to facilitate participative and conciliatory decision making processes. For example, the Ministry of Education (1990, p.1) states that principals are responsible for involving parents and teachers in the school planning process:

- Principals have the responsibility of enabling staff to participate in school decision making.
- Principals have the responsibility for enabling parents to participate in the planning process, in accordance with the Education Act and Regulations.

The Organisation Development Unit[10] of the Ministry of Education (1990), in *Accounting for the Quality of Schooling in Western Australia*, describes the corporate aspect of schools as one of the basic tenets of the new organisation. Primary school principals, as managers, are responsible for maintaining the values and operational parameters of the Ministry of Education. According to the Organisation Development Unit (1990, p.3), principals are to maintain:

- centrally determined policy parameters within which the school can choose its position
- the authority to make decisions about how to most powerfully affect student outcomes. The outcomes themselves are determined centrally in areas covered by syllabus materials.

Furthermore, two Ministry of Education publications, *School Decision Making - Policy and Guidelines* (1990:7) and *School Accountability: Policy and Guidelines* (draft-1991, p.6) explain that the principal is responsible for ensuring that the school is working within Ministry policy which is articulated in terms of systemic priorities. Angus (1990, p.5) makes the point thus:

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[10] At the time of this evaluation this was the name given to the department of the Ministry of Education now referred to as the School Improvement and Accountability Branch (SIAB).

> In the education context, the Government was not intent upon devolving to schools the authority to determine what ends should be. Quite the opposite. Underpinning the paradigm is the belief that better performance will result from sharper focus on systemic priorities. What is being devolved to schools is the authority (and the capacity) to determine the way in which the school will achieve the agreed outcomes.

The system is explicit in terms of the principals' responsibility for maintaining organisational focus on the direction set by the Ministry. Schools have the autonomy to do the best they can within allocated resources, while remaining accountable for the implementation of Ministry priorities. Consequently, principals need to know Ministry priorities as well as have skills in participative decision making and team management in order facilitate the democratic involvement of task groups and committees. More specifically, these skills require principals to refine their ability to delegate tasks, negotiate and resolve conflict. In terms of organising, the skills associated with decision making and team management relate to establishing and maintaining democratic processes. Corporate leadership adds to these processes by promoting a management style that encourages commitment to the achievement of organisational goals.

Leading

The leading process requires principals, as corporate managers, to maintain a bottom-up orientation when motivating, communicating and using power as a means of keeping staff focused upon organisational goals and as 'one' in their pursuit of school goals. The bottom-up orientation is reflected in the Ministry moves to establish more participative decision making processes at the school level. Evidence of the system's expectations on this matter is provided in *School Development Plans - Policy and Guidelines* (1989, pp.6-7). It states that principals are responsible for:

- articulating Ministry policy in the school and the community and then involving both these groups in the school development process.

- ensuring that everyone concerned understands the plan and is clear about any role they may have to play in its implementation.
- offering leadership to the school's teachers and the members of the school-based decision-making group by motivating, initiating participation and enlisting support for the school's priority projects.

The first of these responsibilities matches the principals' need to communicate and protect organisational values. They are required to provide the communication link between the central office, the school and the community. Therefore, there is an expectation that principals' will know, understand and maintain two-way communication processes.

The need for effective two-way communication skills is not restricted to the articulation of Ministry policy. The second identified responsibility highlights the principals' role in ensuring everyone involved with the school development process understands the plan and is clear about their part in its implementation. This responsibility relates to a corporate manager's need to motivate. It is the principals' task to motivate others by focusing upon the school's agreed goals.

Corporate leading moves away from the legal-rational, or even autocratic, leadership style commonly associated with bureaucracy. Angus (1990, pp.7-8) reinforces this view when he points out that *Better Schools* provided the means by which to achieve the Teachers Union's objectives for industrial democracy which, in the past, was "fuelled by reactions against authoritarian leadership styles adopted by some principals and sanctioned by the Education Department." Principals are no longer expected to use the power associated with their traditional position of authority to influence performance. Instead, principals as equal partners with parents and teachers in school decision making influence performance through expert and/or referent power.

In summary, corporate leading responsibilities have created several professional development and management training needs for principals. These include a need for knowledge and understanding of organisational values and direction; an understanding of management styles; and, development of interpersonal communication skills which motivate others by focusing attention on agreed goals.

The system's emphasis on a more democratic workplace has been evidenced in moves towards participative decision making and management in the day-to-day running of schools. Principals are required to develop the skills related to a bottom-up orientation of corporate leading. Given this management style, how, then, are principals expected to control the performance of the school's operation within the context of outcomes-oriented reporting structures?

Controlling

Corporate controlling processes concentrate on the monitoring and evaluation of pre-determined performance outcomes by comparison with actual performance. It is the corporate manager's role to compare actual performance with pre-determined performance standards (objectives) and, where deviation occurs, take corrective action. This aspect of corporate managerialism values effectiveness by focusing exclusively on outcomes or the achievement of results.

The Ministry of Education prescribes corporate control at the school level. *School Development Planning - Policy and Guidelines* specifies that school development plans contain objectives, performance indicators, management information systems, priorities, strategic plans and the allocation of resources. The responsibility for formalising plans which pre-determine the school's purpose, objectives and strategies as well as the means by which performance information is gathered provides the basis for monitoring and the criteria for evaluation.

The school development plan specifies the outcomes for which schools are accountable.   Principals are responsible for monitoring progress towards the achievement of these outcomes.   The focus of attention has shifted from inputs to outcomes.   Performance is controlled by a rational comparison of intended outcomes to actual outcomes.   This perspective is reinforced by the Ministry of Education's decision to delete the requirement under Regulation 177 for principals to view teachers' educational programs on a regular basis.   The Organisation Development Unit (1990, pp.2-3) explains that principals should change the way they view the work of teachers:

> Inherent in the traditional approaches...is that teachers are accountable for presenting a certain syllabus, preparing programs of work, adopting particular kinds of organisation, teaching in certain ways, etc.   In other words, teachers' accountability extends only to the inputs to student learning.   Shifting the emphasis to accountability for improving student outcomes is a necessary part of the re-orientation required but tricky to negotiate because of the danger of teachers seeing it as a way of blaming them for the failure of their students.

Changing responsibilities and accountability for controlling school performance requires skills in monitoring, evaluation and reporting techniques.

Summary

The matching of *Better School* reforms and the Ministry of Education policies to the corporate managerial framework clarifies the changing nature of the principal's administrative role.   It is clear, that part of the principals' role is that of manager, directly accountable to the system for maintaining priorities and achieving student outcomes.   It is their responsibility to direct the functions of the school toward achieving the priorities identified in the school development plan as efficiently and effectively as possible given economic restraints.   Thus there is a need for principals to know, understand and develop skills in the processes of corporate managerialism.

The system's requirements match the corporate managerial framework by prescribing responsibilities for principals in planning, organising, leading and controlling. Table 18 summarises the system's expectations of primary school principals in terms of corporate managerial responsibilities and lists the associated professional development and management training needs.

TABLE 18
SYSTEM'S PERCEPTION OF PRIMARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' CORPORATE MANAGERIAL
RESPONSIBILITIES AND ASSOCIATED PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT NEEDS

PROCESS	ORIENTATION	MANAGEMENT FUNCTION/*NEED*
Planning	Proactive	Establishes a school development plan • *skill in establishing agreement upon the school's overall purpose (mission statement)* • *skills in the management of information* • *financial management/ budgeting skills* • *goal setting and prioritising skills* • *skills in writing performance indicators* • *skills in writing strategic plans*
Organising	Loosely-coupled	Establishes a school decision making group Builds a stable and effective staff team • *group management and delegation skills* • *negotiation and conflict resolution skills* • *knowledge and understanding of Ministry priorities*
Leading	Bottom-up	Enhances participation in school decision making and planning • *knowledge and understanding of organisational values and directions* • *interpersonal/communication skills* • *knowledge and understanding of management styles* • *motivational skills for establishing commitment to change*
Controlling	Outcomes	Monitors, evaluates and reports on school outcomes • *monitoring skills* • *evaluation skills* • *reporting skills*

THE PRINCIPALS' PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR RESPONSIBILITIES

Part of the context evaluation involves examining how the principals' perceptions of their responsibilities match the planning, organising, leading and controlling processes of corporate managerialism. This analytical process resulted in the development of three broad categories for making sense of the interview data. The first category comprises several areas of concern relating to principals' corporate managerial responsibilities. Principals spoke of difficulties in reorganising and motivating staff. More specifically, they referred to problems associated with establishing a school decision making group and involving staff in decision making and program implementation. Their comments highlighted professional development and management training needs in the development of corporate management skills in leading. Moreover, interview data revealed principals' concerns with financial management and performance indicators. Comments on these responsibilities matched corporate managerialism's need to develop skills in the planning process.

Secondly, the analysis of the interview data identified parts of the corporate managerial framework not referred to by the principals. A consideration of what the principals did not say, helps to establish the importance and pervasiveness of the corporate management needs addressed by the Fairmont model. Put differently, it would be difficult to justify the continuation of a corporate managerial training model if principals perceived no need for what it delivered. In this study, the analysis highlighted the principals lack of concern for skills development in the areas of organising and controlling.

The third category of interview data contains reference to needs outside the corporate managerial framework. When identifying their responsibilities, the principals referred to instructional leadership and human resources management and the need for professional development in these areas.

Consequently, there are three parts to this section on the principals' perceptions of their responsibilities: corporate managerial needs, unidentified corporate managerial functions and non corporate managerial needs.

Corporate Managerial Needs

As noted previously, the systemic view of the principals' responsibilities emphasised the establishment of a participative management process through a school decision making group and school planning. Principals are responsible for establishing a decision making group consisting of the principal and an equal number of parent and teacher representatives. Under the Western Australian Education Act and Regulations, school decision making groups are formally constituted bodies, which allow non-professionals the legal right to participate in educational decision making and planning. Principals' comments highlighted the leadership complexities involved in fulfilling this responsibility.

Leading: Uses Interpersonal Communication Skills

According to principals, most of their energy has been devoted to the process of establishing a school decision making group. One principal said that the method used to finalise the decision making group's functions and responsibilities took all of one semester. During this time, he explained, numerous meetings were held with a steering committee, district office personnel and members of various interest groups. The purpose of the meetings was to draft a proposal outlining the operations of the school decision making group which could then be circulated among the school community for comment. The collection and collation of responses was co-ordinated by the principal who then presented responses to meetings of the steering committee and interest groups for their consideration. The principal indicated that obtaining agreement on the functions and responsibilities for the school decision making group

required a lot of personal time and energy. Another principal outlined a similar process:

> It took me about six months. We had to go through all the brainstorming bit, the steering type committee to find out all the potential questions or problems before they (the parents) thought it (a school decision making group) was a worthwhile activity. I suppose it took about four or five meetings of two or more hours each. Then the steering committee presented their findings to the wider P&C group. The parents on the steering committee actually sold the idea to the rest of the parents. From there we gained approval to go ahead. Then the concept was circulated through the school newsletter - a special bulletin type thing. (M3.7)

Principals explained how they were now required to spend a great deal of time dealing directly with many and varied groups. One principal, when reflecting upon his increased level of political activity, said:

> Now I'm going to be dealing with parents and teachers who are representing another larger group again. I'm going to have to be a damned good communicator. (M1.3)

The establishment and maintenance of a school decision making group required communicating school and Ministry directions to a diverse audience. As a result, principals expressed a need to develop effective communication skills which maintained a focus on Ministry values and goals. They saw themselves as the communications link between the central office and the local community - a complex role highlighting many potential difficulties:

> I have to communicate Ministry policy to a school decision making group and have them see the importance of it and then have them ratify this and then take it off to the staff and communicate it to them so they are happy to run with it. (M3.6)

> Communication with staff and groups within your staff and with parents. I haven't been exposed to this coming from a deputy's position. (F3.3)

In communicating it's not just that everyone knows what is going on but that they understand it and they understand why it is happening and being done. Communicating where you want to go and what the Ministry has set out. There is no professional training in this line. It appears that the majority of principals experience difficulty with communication skills. (F2.1)

Well not only do you have the staff, but there is the parent group as well. This is even more difficult, due to the various ethnic groups within the community and their non-educational backgrounds in the majority of cases. (M3.5)

We're talking about what I need between now and the end of the year. Most of all I need to be convinced that the kind of direction I'm going to be pushing that school in are worthwhile - is it valid? (M1A.1)

Further to the need for interpersonal communication skills in relation to the parent body, principals expressed a desire for management training in these skills as a means of affecting the participation of the teaching staff in school decision making. For example:

I think I need to work more on my management style. I'm not sure if the way I go about working with and communicating with the staff is the right way to go. With all the changes to the industrial climate these days I feel management training is quite important. (M3.2)

I spend a lot of time trying to manage the staff properly. You know, doing all sorts of managerial tasks to get them involved and going because the system is going that way. (M2.2)

In the first instance, principals described establishing a school decision making group as a complex management task. The process involved many meetings with, and reports to, groups varying from the actively interested to the unconcerned among parents and teachers. This situation gave rise to the need to be skilled in participative decision making processes which allowed for equal representation as well as motivating participation among the less interested or inarticulate.

Leading: Motivating Others by Enhancing Participation in Goal Setting

The lack of parent interest in school decision making provided further difficulties. For example, one principal, who said, "Apathy reigns supreme in our school", believed he needed to continually put out positive messages about school decision making if it was going happen in the school. This concern for motivating others was shared by a number of principals:

> We had people from the Ministry with some top people from WACCSO who wanted to talk to the P&C about school decision making groups. So we put on food, sent out invitations and put publicity out everywhere. And only a hand full of parents turned up. In a school like the one I got - where many of the people are of a managerial background - they're fairly well comfortable middle class most of them - you would expect a better turn out to what we got - but really school management and the control of schools is not a burning issue with most people. I find it's me who has to work to create the demand. We spent about a $100 on food. The staff ate like kings the next day. The school decision making group only seems to become important when the principal pushes it really hard. Parent participation - there isn't much of a demand for it - or you wouldn't have to go out and push it and push it and push it all the time. (M1A.1)

> The parent group doesn't want anything to do with it. The parent group at the moment doesn't want to know. I suppose I'll have to keep at it if it's going to change in the future. The people who have been here over the last few years are just not interested. They're more interested in going down to the pool or playing squash or going to CWA or working. (F3.3)

> I mentioned the idea of a school decision making group because I was aware of it and had been involved in it in my last school and they said categorically that they didn't want one. (M2.2)

Generally, principals agreed that parents did not regard participation as important. They maintained that parents saw the present structure and processes of the P&C as adequate participation and that time should not be spent investigating alternatives. The situation of parental resistance was further highlighted by another principal explaining his efforts to meet this responsibility. He described how he had decided to 'force the issue' regarding the need to establish a school decision making group by

mentioning it at the P&C meeting, only to be told that they did not want one. This particular situation left the principal asking, "Where do you go from there?" Another principal explained that parents within the school community were only interested in what their child was doing and that the principal and teachers could be contacted whenever a need arose. A pertinent comment which reflected this view was:

> There are a few parents who are willing to come in voluntarily to help
> in the classroom but they don't want to be in a decision making group.
> Most of them see that as the Ministry's position. (M1.1)

The difficulties that principals faced in meeting the Ministry's expectation of participative decision making in schools, highlighted the need for professional development in corporate leading. Principals, in *sticking to the knitting*, sought knowledge and understanding of organisational values and directions and skills in communication and motivation. As one principal explained:

> What I need to get out of professional development is some sort of
> prognosis for the future - you know, some crystal ball gazing on what
> the Ministry believes and where they're going so I can let the parents
> and the teachers know. (M3.2)

In addition to promoting parent participation, principals are required to develop a work milieu which enhances teacher participation in school decision making and planning. Again, principals expressed exasperation in facilitating participation. Such frustration is exemplified in the following comment:

> Well at least we have the relief allocation to allow our teachers to get
> together but if you haven't got the relief teachers to do it then you're
> banging your head against a brick wall. So I don't know what the
> answer is. Somehow or other it has to be done internally - but
> whether we can? (F2.1)

Principals recognised their responsibilities for motivating teacher commitment through participation. However, several factors, such as lack of teacher experience [11] and the availability of relief staff, inhibited teacher participation. For example:

> In my small school we only have two permanent on probation teachers. (M3.1)

> I don't find my time is a problem, but finding them the time to do it. There are no relief teachers available and their interests are on the classroom. Most of them are so young their biggest concern is getting to the end of the week without problems - most are under 23. (M1A.2)

> Our new teachers are coming into a strange situation. We are receiving them thinking that they know a whole lot of things and it turns out that they don't know anyway possibly making it more traumatic for the younger teachers. (M2.2)

Teacher inexperience and the lack of relief teachers made it difficult for principals to bring collaborative work groups together and build effective teams. However, principals were conscious of the need to involve all staff at a school-wide level, that is, in decision making, planning, implementation and evaluation. Most principals were explicit in referring to time, teacher experience and availability of relief teachers as factors which hindered teacher participation in school decision making and planning. One such indicative comment was: [12]

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[11] As an exception, one principal said during the validation interview, "I agree with the relationship between teacher experience and the taking of responsibility for school programs. I had a very experienced person on staff and I found very few problems involving her in program implementation. She was already motivated and confident to take on responsibilities. She was capable of doing it and seemed to like doing it. Prior to her arrival the most experienced person on staff was me - the rest had only two years teaching experience behind them." (M3.8)

[12] During the validation interviews two principals countered this point regarding the difficulty of creating a collaborative work environment. For example, one principal explained how he had four focus areas to the school plan for which teachers had responsibility. He said, "Staff meetings are used for raising issues related to implementation of programs associated with these focus areas. During this time the staff works as one collaborative team to support implementation." (M3.2)

What I find I have to do is to motivate people to work together whenever they can, such as, after school hours, during teaching breaks, on weekends. What I need are ideas as to how to sweeten the medicine a bit. The reality is that I am reliant upon teacher's professionalism and good will - I don't know how to reward this. So, what I want are ways of stimulating a sense of purpose and commitment. (M1A.2)

Principals believed they needed to overcome these problems in order to motivate staff:

I feel teachers need to be more independent of me when they're working. Any decisions about whether we should buy this or get that seem to come to me. I think teachers would be more committed to school development if they had the power to see something all the way through without having to clear everything they do. I believe that if you keep wanting them to be involved in a way where there is no real meat to bite into - then I think you will lose them. (M1.1)

Collaboration is the way to go. The team approach provides a 'sounding board' for everyone else to bounce ideas off. Unfortunately - it just take up so much bloody time. (M1.3)

Principals identified the need for skills in interpersonal communication and motivation as a means of enhancing staff and parent participation in order to develop and maintain a commitment towards organisational values and goals. In addition to these specific skills in leading, principals commented on corporate managerial functions related to planning.

Planning: Financial Management and Budgeting Skills

With respect to the planning process, principals expressed a need to develop financial management and budgeting skills for efficiently allocating the school's financial resources and skills in the development of a management information system and performance indicators for the purpose of monitoring student outcomes. The following discussion considers the principals' perceptions on these planning needs.

Principals saw the school development grant as increasing their accountability for expending school finances efficiently. In the words of one principal:

> Now that schools are getting money in bulk it is apparent that principals need budgeting skills. Far more is expected of them now than was the case a couple of years ago. (M3.1)

Another more senior principal expressed concern for the need to ensure a better organisation of the school budget in the future. He said:

> Budgeting is what I need expert help in. What I know at the moment is a bit shallow. I think a truly 'locked-in' budget is essential now we are moving towards self-determination. (M1A.2)

In terms of training in financial management principals commented:

> I need further professional development in the financial management. (M3.5)

> Budgeting is an area I personally need to deal with - I just need to get a bit of guidance in this area. Like I would like to know all the areas to cover so I can make sure that the school funds are allocated properly. (M3.6)

> I'm always mindful of the financial constraints. From that point of view I would like help to deal with the school grant. It's such a large sum of money and there are so many demands on it that I presently I don't feel confident that I'm dealing with it in the right way. (F2.1)

Financial management and budgeting is only one feature of the school development planning process. Other parts of the planning process, such as the development of management information systems and the writing of performance indicators were highlighted by principals as areas where they needed further training.

Planning: Establishing a Management Information System and Writing Performance Indicators

Principals acknowledged increased accountability for maintaining performance standards throughout the school and were concerned with the need to gather information. This particular view was expressed thus:

> I think for me it is more in terms of indicating performance levels and achievement levels in the specific subject areas across the school. That's really when I start to worry. (M2.2)

The concern for gathering information provoked comment on the need to develop a management information system and write performance indicators. Principals expressed the need to be able to put in place technical mechanisms by which to compare actual school performance and pre-determined standards. They said:

> I need to look at school development planning and how performance indicators fit in and how they relate to monitoring strategies so I will be able to use them to see how well the school is achieving. (M3.6)

> I guess when you consider management information systems and relating that to performance indicators - being able to honestly state in terms of performance indicators how we have performed is an area that I really need to look at because I don't feel comfortable with that. I have no problem with using tests throughout the school to get a broad picture of how well we are going but when you come down to the finer performance indicators and how you gather and record the information to indicate some level of achievement, then I don't rest easy. (M1.3)

> I definitely need more ideas in the area of writing performance indicators. (M3.7)

> How do you measure? The concept of school development planning requires performance indicators. You are going to be gathering data upon which to base future school development plans. So I need to know how to write performance indicators. (M3.1)

Determination of performance indicators and the development of a management information system emerged as important areas for professional development. Principals saw collecting and recording student performance data and the writing of performance indicators as a fundamental part of the planning process. For example:

> I can see that if you have 20 PIs (performance indicators) for your school then you will have to carry out 20 specific purpose tests and/or 20 specific purpose information gathering activities. By putting them in the school plan I can ensure things get done. All I need now is some help in getting all this set up otherwise its just going to be a time consuming beast. (M1.2)

Principals regarded the testing of students as an important function. Although they doubted the legitimacy of standardised tests, they still felt obliged to plan for testing across the grades in order to gather the information needed to account for school performance. For example:

> If you are interested in finding out what kids in your school can do you need hard data gathering activities where you try to remove the influence of the teacher at the time of testing to increase the accuracy of the results. However, the reality is you have to rely upon results from tests administered by the classroom teacher. (M1A.1)

> Yes, well now that we are getting away from testing how are we going to work out our student outcomes. I believe there is going to be a huge hole that won't be filled in because I don't know much about performance indicators. (F3.3)

> With the new maths and reading syllabuses coming in we're going to be looking at a whole new system which performance indicators can help us monitor. We do a lot of testing here which is a little bit old hat so over the next twelve months they are going to have to do a lot of check listing but I don't know if it is going to give them the information they need. (M1.1)

This aspect of the context evaluation has highlighted the principals' need for professional development and management training in specific areas of corporate planning and leading. With respect to planning, principals sought to develop skills in allocating resources and developing mechanisms by which information on student

outcomes could be gathered. More specifically, they identified financial management and budgeting, the writing of performance indicators and the development of management information systems as important training needs.

Unidentified Corporate Managerial Functions

This part of the analysis of the principals' perceptions of their responsibilities highlights aspects of the corporate managerial framework which were not referred to throughout the interviews. It also offers various reasons why principals may not have seen a need for professional development and training in these aspects.

In the area of planning, principals did not identify a need for skills development in establishing the school's mission statement, setting and prioritising school development goals or problem identification. It could be argued that by using district office consultants to set goals and priorities and write the school mission statement, skills related to these functions were of secondary importance to the principals. The taking on of these functions by the district school development officers appeared to be a common practice through the district.

In addition to mission statements and goals, principals did not refer to the need to develop planning skills in problem identification and the writing of implementation strategies. This may stem from the expertise that principals have gained over the years as teachers. Also, as competent classroom practitioners, they may have finely honed their skills in identifying problems and writing strategic plans as part of the teaching process. Further to the omission of these planning skills, principals did not mention the need for professional development and training in organising and controlling.

The 'loosely-coupled' organising process requires the development of skills associated with being caught in the middle of various interest groups. In the principals' case, this often means being subject to the opposing pressures of maintaining Ministry of Education direction and implementing the directions set by the teachers and the local community. In this situation, principals need to develop organising skills related to the managing of groups, delegating tasks, negotiating and resolving of conflict. However, the principals' comments in relation to the pressures associated with being 'caught in the middle' of the central office and a self-determining school did not match those of the organising process. Rather they were in line with the leadership skills of interpersonal communication and motivation.

The principals' lack of concern for organising skills in 1990 may be linked to the timeline for the implementation of *Better School's* recommendations. In other words, many of the organisational changes were just coming into play and therefore the true impact of a 'loosely-coupled' system was yet to hit schools. Teachers and parents still operated in a mode where they took directions from the principal and, as a result, the demand for skills in managing groups, delegating tasks, negotiating and resolving conflict may have been limited.

Interviews with principals did not evoke comment on the need for evaluation skills in relation to controlling school performance. Though, throughout interview sessions participants did acknowledge the need to gather information on student outcomes. As a result, it can be argued that some concern existed for monitoring performance but there was no real indication of need for skill development in evaluating or reporting on the school's outcomes. The reason may stem from both the *Better School's* timeline and the principals' teaching background. Firstly, the timeline was at a stage where monitoring was related more to planning in terms of understanding and writing performance indicators as opposed to their actual use for accountability purposes. Secondly, the implementation of *Better Schools* was only at the point of ensuring

schools had appropriate planning processes in place. Consequently, there was no demand from either the system or the school decision making group for principals to evaluate or report on the school's overall performance. And thirdly, principals, as competent classroom practitioners, would not perceive a direct need for the development of skills in evaluation. As part of the teaching process, principals would have constantly been responsible for the evaluation of educational programs. As a result, it is conceivable that principals would possess a degree of confidence in evaluation and therefore not see it as a training need.

In contrast to the lack of concern for organising skills, the corporate leading processes of the principals' responsibilities were well covered. Principals' commented on the need for professional development in the areas of interpersonal communication and motivation as a means of enhancing participation in school management throughout interview sessions. Thus the next feature of the analytical process in the context evaluation identifies principals' comments which fall outside the corporate managerial framework. This aspect complements efforts to analyse the importance and pervasiveness of the needs addressed by the Fairmont model. Again, it would be difficult to justify the continuation of the model from the view point of corporate managerialism if principals' most important and pervasive professional development and management training needs lay outside this area.

Non-Corporate Managerial Needs

The principals, when discussing their responsibilities, identified two areas of concern that did not relate directly to their managerial functions: instructional leadership and human resource management. In relation to instructional leadership, principals talked about establishing a curriculum focus for school direction, monitoring teacher performance and professionalism, and management of information for teacher

development.   Other human resource management issues raised concerned **equal** opportunity and legal aspects of school management.

Instructional Leadership: Establishing a Curriculum Focus for School Direction

The principals' concern for their role as instructional leaders was exemplified by comments on professional development in curriculum areas.   They argued that there was more to education than efficient and effective school management.   For example:

> Look in the *Better Schools* report and try to find something about pupil learning. (M2.2)

> I think there is more to it than just getting value for the dollar. (F2.1) Most of the things that are coming out of the Ministry at the moment have very little to nothing to do with teaching.   I think we shouldn't be over emphasising this Harvard Business School of Management approach to the running of our schools. (M1A.2)

> 80% of the reason as to why schools are there is to educate kids yet we are concentrating on the other 20%   We seem to be concentrating on all these sorts of things - like the involvement of the community. All these little facilitating things which we presume will help us with the other 80%   as to why we are here.   It's what's happening in the classroom that's important.   Not what's happening in the office or the school decision making group.   Very little - a minuscule part of our energies is being devoted to what's happening in the classroom - that's tragic. (M1A.1)

Principals expressed concern about the need to know the content of new **syllabus** packages.   They sought knowledge and understanding, as well as reassurance **that the** content of new curriculum materials would improve student outcomes.   Comments which reflected this position were:

> These days if I don't request in-service on curriculum changes then I don't get them.   But it's so important to keep up with these changes. (M1.3)

> But communicating new curriculum concepts - there is nothing in that line. As a principal I think we need to be working with teachers on these issues if we are going to improve on the quality of education. (M1.1)

In addition to professional development in curriculum areas, principals were also concerned about the quality of teaching practice. The responsibility for improving the quality of education gave rise to comments on 'how' teachers taught which highlighted a conflict between corporate management's emphasis on outcomes and the profession's concern with inputs.

Instructional Leadership: Monitoring Teacher Performance and Professionalism

Principals believed it was their role to provide feedback to staff on 'how' they taught. That is, attention needed to be given to teacher inputs. There was a desire by principals to be able to provide performance feedback to staff based upon notions of what constituted a 'good teacher'. Principals explained that they needed to be able to provide formal feedback to newly appointed teachers in terms of their skill level as compared to what could be expected of a beginning teacher.

Principals took a top-down position when monitoring the quality of teaching and providing corrective action. According to principals, schools were staffed with newly graduated teachers who were working very hard just to survive professionally on a day to day basis. Therefore they needed to be told 'how' to teach through constant coaching, reassurance and guidance. One principal explained how this was once a task for the superintendent:

> Dealing with the performance of the staff is a job which has been handed over to the principal and removed from the superintendent. When you think about the issue of permanency, in the past you were able to have a little conference with the superintendent and say, "Yes, yes, yes, but go through this one like a dose of salts." And the super would go in there and do it. But now we have to do that and present the documentation that will indicate the regularity of visits, identification of areas of need and the suggested strategies for professional development. (M3.6)

Principals, in reference to this new direct relationship with staff, were concerned about 'what' to say. What was a 'good' beginning teacher capable of? One principal explained that she was not sure about what newly appointed teachers knew and, as a result, felt that she may have been expecting too much. In terms of professional development, she indicated a need to learn more about what was happening in universities and colleges.

Generally, principals believed a 'good teacher' to be someone who possessed particular competencies. Moreover, principals believed they needed to link performance feedback for new teachers to an external set of competency criteria which specified what constituted a 'good teacher'.

The task of maintaining performance standards was seen as identifying the weak performer and providing remediation. In other words, principals saw it as their role to take action by teaching 'poor' teachers how to teach and encouraging 'good' teachers to continue to do a good job. Principals described the latter as a lot easier than changing the performance of the 'poor' teacher.

Principals expressed a desire for training in how to deal with the 'poor' performer. The hardest thing for them to accept was staff who did not heed suggestions. A range of comments illustrated this position:

The difficulty comes when they won't change. You talk to them but they don't change. The rhetoric says there are ways of getting rid of these people, but it takes two years. You can't say to someone, 'look you're pretty hopeless so you should be gone.' (M1A.1)

We don't know enough about what they are actually doing in the classroom. (F2.1)

I need some sort of verification of standards in terms of what I see as a bad teacher - are they really bad? It's the old story of: "Gee, I've got a bad one"; "Boy you reckon you've got a bad one, it's not as bad as mine!" From that point of view I'm looking for some sort of standard. (M3.6)

I have to coach the teacher along. But in my small school I don't have the means of explaining to them or showing them what a good beginning teacher does. (M3.4)

What is important to me is some sort of standard of quality. For example, I saw this teacher as really bad but I don't know if the superintendent thought he was as bad as I did. What are the sorts of things that I should be expecting of them? (M3.2)

I have to be concerned about how teachers do things. For example, you try and teach kids to be neat and tidy and orderly in how they do things to control their everyday lives. I walk into a teacher's classroom and it looks like a dog's been let loose in there. There's papers everywhere and the teacher has his feet up on the table and there is rubbish all over the floor. One of the greatest ways kids learn things is through imitating adults. (M1A.2)

Principals were concerned with the monitoring and maintenance of professional standards. They argued that they were unable to focus exclusively on student outcomes. According to principals, their role was to know and understand 'good' teaching practice. This knowledge could then be used to ensure that the professional standards needed to effect student outcomes were maintained. Consequently, training in the area of teacher competencies was an important area raised by principals throughout the interview sessions. The need to affect teacher performance left principals commenting on the need for school induction plans as one means of managing information for the purpose of affecting teacher development.

Instructional Leadership: Managing Information to Affect Teacher Development

Principals saw effective staff induction as a strategy for facilitating the quality of teaching in the school.   They saw the induction plan as a mechanism for communicating and maintaining procedures which assisted newly appointed staff to make a smooth transition into the community, the school, and teaching.   For them it was an important ingredient in stabilising the quality of the school's educational program through the development of newly appointed staff.   The need for skills in inducting staff were reflected in the following comments:

> I'm particularly interested in the writing of a brief induction plan for the new graduates coming into the school. You know, to identify the sorts of strategies and content which would be important to an induction plan. (M1.2)

> There's a need to help new staff as well as new principals settle quickly and smoothly into the running of the school. Some thoughts and ideas on what would be the best things to give them or tell would be handy. (M3.7)

> Graduates find it really difficult just getting started. They need some concrete things to do when they first get their class. I think a plan that gives them specific help in making decisions about getting into the practicalities of day to day teaching would be very helpful. (F2.1)

The knowledge and understanding of curriculum issues and the quality of teaching were broad professional development and training needs identified by principals that did not relate to corporate managerialism. Another such area related to equity which, like corporate managerialism, emerged as one of the tenets of public sector reform.

Human Resource Management: Equity

Various reforms and devolution has led to new problems and concerns for primary school principals. For example, principals described new responsibilities, such as the

appointment of non-professional staff, equal opportunity legislation and grievance committees.

They highlighted a need for specific knowledge of regulations related to the equal opportunity issues of interviewing and appointment procedures as well as skills in interviewing techniques. For example:

> At a recent principals conference I suggested the need to hone my interviewing skills. (M1A.2)

> I think interviewing skills is an area that I need help in. (M3.2)

Others commented on the need to develop knowledge and understanding related to the terms and conditions of employment:

> It is a question of priority. There are other things. If I'm going to get some help on how to interpret the latest memorandum, then I'm going to go for that in preference to how to implement the new art syllabus. (M1.3)

> I would like information on other industrial awards of employees. Knowing what they have to work to. Knowing about the entitlements of the non-teaching staff, such as the school assistant. When it comes to other industrial awards we have no idea. We always have to say, "I'll have to phone up." (M3.4)

> Well no one can talk informatively about the awards of non-teaching staff and it is something we never receive any training in. I think professional development in this area would be valuable. (M2.2)

> I would like some further training in industrial law and industrial issues. We definitely need help because you've got the CSA and the Teachers' Union. You have to be careful because you could stomp on unionists' toes every time you open your mouth. You could ask teachers to do something and it could be the totally wrong thing. (F3.3)

Principals sought professional development in interviewing techniques and industrial relations as a consequence of increased accountability. One principal demonstrated

the need for further understanding of the impact of equal opportunity legislation. He explained how he was made to account to senior personnel in the central office regarding a complaint from a female staff member. She had accused him of failing to comply with equal opportunity legislation when deciding against her in favour of a male staff member when applying for an opportunity to take responsibility for a senior class. The reason he had given for not allocating the class to her was that he wanted a male in that area of the school. As a result, he was required to explain his actions. This experience left the principal very sensitive to issues relating to equal opportunity and grievances from the staff.

Human Resource Management: The Law and School Management

As the organisation's 'front person', principals perceived themselves to be extremely vulnerable in situations which could result in legal action. They saw themselves as the prime target as a result of self-determination and an increased emphasis on accountability. Clearly, they felt isolated in the organisation:

> The aspect of culpability - allowing things to happen. Like sports issues - say like in NSW with the rugby games in the playground, you know, with the principal allowing the rugby to go without having it supervised. (M3.1)

> I really don't know the legal issues related to kids, contracts and dealing with parents. There are so many legal aspects. If something was offered I would be very interested in it for the purpose of knowing where you stand legally and where your staff stands legally. It is really worrying when you consider your personal legal liability when taking kids on excursions and camps. I know nothing about the legal issues. (M1A.2)

> I haven't mentioned my custodial role, accountability, working with other government agencies, issues of confidentiality, issues of discipline and supervision - there are all sorts. (M1.1)

Principals felt a need for professional development which would increase their knowledge and understanding of the law in relation to school management.

In summary, this part of the analysis has looked outside the corporate managerial framework and has discovered training needs related to curriculum development, professional practice and staff induction. Clearly, the move towards self-determining schools has created a need for training in instructional leadership. It has also increased the principals' need for information and understanding of equal opportunity legislation, industrial law and common law in relation to school management.

The principals' perceptions of their professional development and training needs have been analysed using the corporate managerial framework. Principals identified a wide range of training needs that correspond to the four processes of corporate managerialism and beyond. Table 19 (see page 150) summarises the outcomes of analysing the principals' views of their training needs in terms of the framework presented on page 85.

CONCLUSIONS

It remains to draw together the data obtained from the context evaluation for the purpose of determining the importance and pervasiveness of the corporate managerial needs addressed by the Fairmont model. The context evaluation has established that the Fairmont model, as part of its 1990 program, addressed the corporate management needs listed in Table 20 (see page 150).

TABLE 19

PRINCIPALS' PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND
TRAINING NEEDS

Corporate Managerial training *needs*	Non corporate Managerial training *needs*
Planning: • *Financial management and budgeting* • *Writing performance indicators* • *Management information systems* Organising:	Instructional Leadership: • *Establishing a curriculum focus for school direction* • *Monitoring teacher performance and professionalism* • *Managing information for teacher development*
Leading: • *Interpersonal communication* • *Motivation* • *Organisational values and directions* Controlling:	Human Resource Management: • *Equal opportunity legislation* • *Law in relation to school management*

TABLE 20

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING NEEDS
ADDRESSED BY THE FAIRMONT MODEL

Process	Orientation	Corporate Training Need
Planning:	Proactive	• *Skills in writing performance indicators* • *Financial management/ budgeting skills*
Organising:	Loosely-coupled	
Leading:	Bottom-up	• *Motivation/awareness raising strategies for adapting to change and maintaining staff self-esteem*
Controlling:	Outcomes	

The analysis of the system's and the primary school principals' view of their corporate managerial responsibilities provides the foundation upon which to base conclusions regarding the importance and pervasiveness of the corporate managerial needs which were addressed. From the perspective of the context evaluation there is justification for the continuation of the Fairmont model if the needs addressed are both corporate managerial in nature and important. Decision makers need to know that they are providing a program that caters for the wide range of corporate managerial responsibilities prescribed by the system and that such skills reflect the needs of principals.

The Fairmont Model and The System

From a systemic perspective, the corporate managerial needs addressed by the Fairmont model would be perceived as important. The training sessions on the writing and use of performance indicators matched the system's desire for principals' skills in establishing a school development plan and monitoring outcomes. Again, the Fairmont model's attention to financial management and budgeting skills corresponds to the Ministry of Education's requirement for principals to write school development plans as a means of accounting for educational expenditure. Finally, the professional development on motivation/awareness raising strategies related to the system's view of the principals' leadership responsibilities in facilitating the achievement of organisational goals.

Although the Fairmont model's 1990 program, from the system's perspective was important, it was nonetheless, limited. It did not cover a number of responsibilities. Professional development and training needs related to the establishing of school decision making groups were not addressed. The skills associated with corporate organising and controlling were not part of the program. Principals were not offered activities which looked at skills for communicating Ministry values or directions.

It could be argued that the Fairmont model's limited coverage of the corporate managerial skills, sought by the system, is a weakness. However, if the needs to be addressed were the most important, then given the time constraints associated with the provision of professional development, criticism may not be justified. Furthermore, principals may not have needed professional development in the areas which were highlighted by the system.

The Fairmont Model and The Principals

From the principals' perspective, the corporate managerial needs addressed by the Fairmont model, were of secondary importance. These included: school budgeting, writing performance indicators and motivational/awareness raising strategies. In relation to corporate management, principals were more concerned with the need to communicate organisational values and directions, enhance participation in school decision making and motivate staff collaboration and commitment.

While the Fairmont model was designed to address the needs identified by the principals, their comments indicated that their professional development needs were more extensive than the program suggested. They were very concerned with their new relationship with parents and teachers. They faced the problem of a new workplace democracy which encouraged participative decision making and participative management in a context of inexperienced staff and an isolated environment devoid of adequate relief staff. Given this situation, the principals were particularly concerned with their ability to communicate and maintain the Ministry's position while facilitating the participation of parents and teachers as well as exercising responsibility and accepting accountability for instructional leadership and human resource management.

The Future

What corporate managerial needs did the Fairmont model address and how important and pervasive were they? The needs addressed by the Fairmont model were corporate managerial in nature. However, the model did not cater for the principals' main concerns related to corporate leading. In terms of the context evaluation, the justification for the continuation of the Fairmont model should be based upon its capacity to shift the training emphasis from planning issues to the leadership concerns of interpersonal communication and motivation. In this way the focus would shift to the important corporate managerial processes of leading as identified by local principals. However, if another model with the capacity to address the professional development needs related to these processes already existed, then, in terms of time and effort, it may be more expedient to simply embrace that alternative.

CHAPTER 10
INPUT EVALUATION

I/D/E/A (1987) is a principals' in-service program which was compiled by James C. LaPlant and the staff of the Institute for the Development of Educational Activities Inc. in Ohio, USA. It is a two year individualised professional development program which focuses on the school as the centre for change. The program aims to establish a relationship of mutual support among its participants in order to encourage the sharing of problems and solutions.

The I/D/E/A program was introduced into the Fairmont district by two local primary school principals who had trained as program facilitators. They invited their colleagues to participate in the program's monthly sessions which they would facilitate. A large percentage of the local primary school principals accepted the invitation and the program commenced in March, 1990. This unique situation provided an ideal opportunity for a direct comparison of two professional development programs operating under similar conditions with the same participants.

This chapter compares the Institute for Development of Educational Activities, Principals' Inservice Program (hereafter called the I/D/E/A program) with the Fairmont model. Its main objective is to determine whether one program is better placed than the other to cater for the local principals' corporate managerial needs.

The context evaluation concluded that the continuation of the Fairmont model would be more justifiable if it covered more of the corporate managerial needs identified by local principals. The input evaluation seeks to address the issue of whether such modification to the Fairmont model is worthwhile. In other words, it would be difficult to sustain an argument for retaining the Fairmont model, albeit in modified form, if an alternative program existed which better catered for principals' corporate

managerial needs. To meet this objective, the input evaluation seeks to answer the question:

Is there justification for the selection of the I/D/E/A program as a corporate managerial model in preference to the Fairmont model?

Three yardsticks are used to the compare the models. Firstly, the principals' important corporate managerial needs, as identified through the context evaluation, are compared with the training delivered by the I/D/E/A program. Secondly, the principals' perceptions of the capacity of each program to provide for their corporate managerial training needs are compared. And thirdly, a summarised list of characteristics associated with successful professional development programs is used to compare the characteristics of each program. By way of background, a brief summary of the I/D/E/A program follows.

THE I/D/E/A COLLEGIAL SUPPORT PROGRAM

I/D/E/A is a professional development program for principals which facilitates mutual support as a means of promoting continuous positive change. It is premised on the belief that increased political and community pressure for change and the importance of role modelling as a means of influencing others to change provides the justification for on-going professional development and collegial support.

The I/D/E/A program is a two year program which aims "to help principals improve their professional competencies so that they can in turn, improve school programs for students" (I/D/E/A, 1987, pp. 0-4). It involves 6 - 10 voluntary participants together with a trained facilitator who works through a series of structured sessions designed to facilitate four outcomes: professional development, school improvement, collegial support and continuous improvement.

The structure of the program comprises three phases: getting started, monthly sessions and celebration. The first part, 'getting started' takes three days and focuses on establishing the collegial support group. It aims to create feelings of cohesiveness, mutual trust and a sense of working together for a common cause. During the three days, principals engage in collegial support building, brainstorming, consensus reaching, 'in-basket' problem solving, outcome clarification, and self-assessment activities centred around leadership styles and leadership characteristics.

The second component, consisting of nine monthly meetings, is based on adult learning principles. In workshops, principals plan personal professional development and school improvement projects that they can go away and implement. At the next session, progress on these plans is shared and constructively reviewed, and then further aspects of the plans are developed for implementation and subsequent collegial assistance and review. That is, the group is a medium through which principals can exchange ideas, gain peer support, and critique individual plans. Each monthly session is structured around a sequence of processes and group-generated activities based on the four anticipated outcomes. Also, each session has a particular theme or set of agenda items against which past, present, and future plans can be researched and developed (see Table 21, page 157).

TABLE 21
PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT SESSIONS OF THE I/D/E/A PROGRAM

Session	Aim
1	To analyse how principals spend their time
2	To write an individual professional development plan
3	To investigate and examine school practices
4	To establish the principal's role as a manager of change
5	To analyse the school improvement plan
6	To identify the in-service needs of those responsible for the implementation of the school improvement project
7	To define an effective co-ordination role for the principal in the school improvement project
8	To promote evaluation as one part of continuous improvement
9	To evaluate the I/D/E/A program

The third component in the I/D/E/A program's structure is a one day session for celebration. It focuses on the aim of continuous improvement by reflecting upon the experiences of the first year and planning the professional development program for the second year.

THE I/D/E/A PROGRAM AND CORPORATE MANAGERIALISM

In comparing the I/D/E/A program to the Fairmont model, in terms of the capacity to provide professional development in corporate managerialism, the input evaluation considers the second component of the I/D/E/A program, the nine monthly sessions. As a result, the first part of the input evaluation is twofold. Firstly, it uses the corporate managerial framework to identify the extent to which the monthly sessions are corporate managerial in nature. More specifically it examines each of the nine sessions in terms of providing training in planning, loosely-coupled organising, a bottom-up leadership style, and controlling in order to account for the achievement of

pre-determined outcomes. The second part of the comparison determines the extent to which these skills match those identified by local primary school principals.

Planning

Sessions 1, 2 and 3 of the I/D/E/A program aimed to develop principals' skills in planning. For example, the goals of sessions 1 and 3 respectively, were:

- To establish personal professional development goals.
- To establish school improvement project goals.

Through activities related to writing a personal professional development plan and a school improvement plan, principals were exposed to time management and goal setting and prioritising skills. In relation to the development of time management skills, session 1 required principals to complete an activity entitled, *How Principals Spend Their Time*. This exercise aimed to create awareness of what principals do compared to what they would like to do. However, time management, although an important skill in relation to planning the day, did not match the corporate managerial framework.

An important part of corporate planning is the identification and prioritisation of goals as a means of specifying what needs to be achieved. The following facilitator's notes from sessions 1 and 3 provide evidence of the program's intent to develop skills in setting and prioritising goals:

> Start principals thinking about involvement of others in generating data to be used in setting school improvement goals (I/D/E/A, 1987, p.1-7).

> It is required that principals use the inventories or some other acceptable means of gathering data and involving others in identifying school needs (I/D/E/A, 1987, p.3-3).

Session 2 briefly touched upon other skills related to planning. It involved **principals** in activities which analysed the construction of their personal **professional** development plan. For example, activity 3(c) states:

> Spend 20 to 30 minutes reviewing each person's plan in some detail. Allow discussion for clarification and then offer constructive comments on plan, resources, additional ways of achieving goals, and potential 'payoffs' (I/D/E/A, 1987, p.2-4).

The planning format offered for discussion in session 2 matches the technical components of corporate planning. It prescribes the writing of goals and objectives, evidence of attainment (performance indicators), in-service activities (resource allocation), start and completion dates (implementation) and progress log (management information system). One facilitator's note in session 6 makes I/D/E/A's intention to develop principals' ability in planning more explicit:

> Peers need to help principals create action plans which are efficient and effective (I/D/E/A, 1987, p.6-4).

Organising

The organisation of the I/D/E/A program centres on collaboration. The structure of the I/D/E/A program fostered a positive attitude towards collaboration by continuously exposing principals to the collegial support group as a problem solving resource. As such, it matches corporate management's loosely-coupled orientation and highlights the benefits of team work.

More specifically, session 3 of the I/D/E/A program involved principals in analysing school organisation through a school practices inventory. It asked whether the school was organised into teams, if teachers worked together, if there was open communication, whether there was role specialisation and divisions of labour, whether there was flexibility in how the curriculum was offered and whether teachers worked

together to establish procedures and resolve problems. One principal said, "I found the I/D/E/A program quite valuable. It gave me ideas on how to work with the staff." (M1.2). Another explained:

> I like the I/D/E/A program because it shows me how to develop trust amongst my staff. I find myself doing things back at school to involve the staff although I can't think of any particular session which set out to teach me to do this. I think I just feel good about the collegial support group and would like it to happen like this at school. (M3.7)

The schools' practices inventory drew principals' attention to how the school was organised. In terms of school improvement planning, session 3 reinforced the belief that collaboration is an effective means of planning because it identifies and clarifies goals which, in turn, builds staff commitment towards outcomes. For example:

> School needs that are data based and *involve those who are faced with the need on a daily basis* (italics mine) are likely to be agreed upon as a priority (I/D/E/A, 1987, p.3-3).

Session 3 attempted to develop a positive attitude towards participative decision making and delegation of task to collaborative teams, whereas session 6 dealt more specifically with the actual involvement of staff. It focused on the need for principals to cater for the in-service needs of those responsible for implementation. For example, the facilitator's note regarding the principals' responsibility for organising collaborative school practices that effectively involve staff in project implementation said:

> It is important that principals plan for providing the competencies required for successful implementation rather than assuming that all those involved possess the requisite skills. The principal needs to focus on his/her responsibility in this process (I/D/E/A, 1987, p.6-3).

Sessions 3 and 6 valued democracy in school organisation by emphasising collaboration in task completion. However, there was no evidence of specific skills

development associated with negotiation and conflict resolution which can arise in a loosely-coupled organisation when the educational direction sought by parents and teachers clashes with the interests of the corporation.

Session 4 helped to further the principals' understanding of participative decision making in a loosely-coupled environment. Principals were required to complete a role interdependence and decision making matrix as a means of developing skills in identifying the important influences upon the success of school improvement projects. For example:

> This (role interdependence matrix) helps identify the involvement of others if this project is going to succeed. Discuss the location of decisions and the desirability of keeping decision making as close as possible to those who will be affected. This matrix also suggests some communication networks which maybe necessary for meaningful involvement (I/D/E/A, 1987, p. 4-5).

This activity highlighted the importance of developing participative decision making structures. It pointed to the important and influential role played by teachers, parents, students and the central office in school decision making by linking their influence to the success of outcomes. The involvement of these players at various levels demonstrated I/D/E/A's recognition of the importance of participative decision making and the loosely-coupled nature of schools as organisations.

Leading

The specific training needs associated with corporate leading are motivation, communication and the use of power in relation to the achievement of organisational goals. Analysis of the monthly I/D/E/A sessions revealed that activities in sessions 4 and 5 specifically focused on the development of skills related to a 'bottom-up' management style.

Sessions 4 sought to clarify the principals' role as an agent of change within the school. It stated:

> If principals are going to be instrumental in improvement efforts, they need to consider behaviours which have been identified as change agent roles (I/D/E/A, 1987, p.4-4).

Activities exposed principals to particular change roles and the levels of involvement of those with influence upon school decision making. Principals analysed their own behaviour in terms of the change agent roles of catalyst, solution generator, process helper or resource linker.

The role of change agent within the school requires communication skills related to giving and receiving messages. The sub-goals of session 5 illustrated the I/D/E/A program's intention to develop the communication skills of principals:

- To reinforce interpersonal communication skills.
- To examine the utility of the Johari Awareness Model for understanding one's relationship with others.
- To share the perceived norms about communication in the respective schools.
- To examine the group expectations regarding communications in the collegial support group (I/D/E/A, 1987, p. 5-1).

In addition, the Johari Awareness Model drew attention to the importance of interpersonal relationships while the communications article, included in session 5, highlighted the skills of paraphrasing, perception checking, describing behaviour and giving and receiving feedback.

Sessions 4 and 5 raised awareness of participative decision making. Like sessions 3 and 6, these sessions enhanced principals' attitudes towards a management style that believes effectiveness is related to the political involvement of those who influence outcomes. Although activities, which developed principals' awareness as to who

influences school outcomes would have highlighted the impact of the central office, they did not provide specific knowledge of organisational values and directions. While no activity sp cifically referred to the need to motivate others through goal setting it can be argued that part of the activities imply motivation through suggesting that principals actively involve others in planning. However, skills in effective communication were addressed by sessions 4 and 5.

Controlling

Corporate controlling has an outcomes orientation which requires principals to assess variations between desired performance and actual performance standards. It requires technical and rational skills related to gathering information and taking corrective action. The corporate controlling needs of principals, which a program's content should address, are monitoring and evaluation skills.

Sessions 7 of I/D/E/A involved principals in monitoring their school improvement projects. Activity 3, which asked, "what does coordinating mean to you?" sought to engage principals in exploring effective coordinating and monitoring techniques. Furthermore, the simulation exercise required principals to problem solve monitoring implementation with the aim to developing criteria for effective coordination.

Session 8 went beyond monitoring implementation to the evaluation of the school improvement project. For example, the goal of session 8 was:

> To use evaluation questions which will promote evaluation as one phase of continuous improvement (I/D/E/A, 1987, p.8-1).

Principals worked through a model which illustrated the relationship between evaluation and outcomes. It referred principals to the following formative evaluation questions which focused upon outcomes:

- What happened?
- What were the results?
- Were the intended results achieved?
- What were the effects of the project?
- What were the effects of the plan/project?
- What were the unforeseen or unpredicted effects? (I/D/E/A, 1987, p.8-5)

Performance was related to outcomes by such questions as "what happened?" and "what were the results?" Principals were asked to identify intended and unintended results as a comparison between pre-determined outcomes and actual outcomes. With the support of the evaluation model and their peer group, principals were required to develop their own evaluation strategy.

The last of the nine monthly sessions also looked at evaluation. In session 9 principals were asked to evaluate the success of the I/D/E/A program. As a result, it linked the concept of evaluation to continuous improvement therefore completing the efficiency and effectiveness cycle. This cyclic process matched the efficiency and effectiveness values of corporate planning and controlling.

The I/D/E/A program addressed several corporate managerial training issues in terms of knowledge, skills and attitudes. By way of conclusion, the next section compares the corporate managerial training offered by both the I/D/E/A program and the Fairmont model to the corporate managerial needs identified by local primary school principals.

The I/D/E/A Program and the Fairmont Model

Table 22 (see page 165) summarises the corporate managerial training delivered by the I/D/E/A program and the Fairmont model. It illustrates the I/D/E/A program's greater coverage of corporate managerial skills. While the Fairmont model provided

skill development in writing performance indicators and school budgets as a means to efficient school development planning and paid some attention to corporate leadership style through the conference on staff motivation and awareness raising strategies, the I/D/E/A program focused on skills related to all four corporate management processes.

TABLE 22
COMPARISON OF CORPORATE MANAGERIAL TRAINING PROVIDED BY THE I/D/E/A PROGRAM AND THE FAIRMONT MODEL

I/D/E/A Program	Fairmont Model
Planning • Planning structure • Time management • Goal setting and prioritising • A belief that planning should involve those affected by outcomes	Planning • Performance indicators • Budgeting skills
Organising • Delegation • Knowledge as to who influences school outcomes • A belief that collaboration and team work develops commitment to school outcomes	Organising
Leading • Interpersonal communication skills • A belief in the effectiveness of the 'bottom-up' democratic processes of participative decision making	Leading • Staff motivation and awareness raising strategies
Controlling • Monitoring skills • Evaluation skills	Controlling

This first comparison demonstrates the pervasiveness of the I/D/E/A program. The summary (Table 23, page 166) attempts to identify the importance of the corporate managerial needs addressed by I/D/E/A by comparing the corporate managerial needs identified by local primary school principals through the context evaluation and the programs offered by the Fairmont model and the I/D/E/A program.

TABLE 23

COMPARISON OF CORPORATE MANAGERIAL TRAINING NEEDS OF LOCAL PRIMARY
SCHOOL PRINCIPALS TO THE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

Principals' Corporate Managerial Needs	I/D/E/A Program	Fairmont Model
Planning Performance Indicators Financial Management and Budgeting	**Planning** Planning structure Time management Goal setting and prioritising A belief that planning should involve those affected by outcomes	**Planning** Performance indicators Budgeting skills
Organising	**Organising** Delegation Knowledge of who influence school outcomes A belief that collaboration and team work develops commitment to school outcomes	**Organising**
Leading Interpersonal communication skills Motivational skills Knowledge of organisational values and directions	**Leading** Interpersonal communication skills A belief in the effectiveness of the 'bottom-up' democratic processes of participative decision making	**Leading** Motivational/Awareness Raising Strategies
Controlling	**Controlling** Monitoring skills Evaluation skills	**Controlling**

This comparison provides a limited degree of support for the selection of the I/D/E/A
as an alternative to the Fairmont model due to its capacity to meet the principals' need
for interpersonal communication skills. There are two reasons for this qualified
support. Firstly, I/D/E/A's provided many activities which are unrelated to the needs
of principals. And secondly, a conclusion which rules in favour of the I/D/E/A
program in preference to the Fairmont model cannot be limited to a simple
comparison of the program content. The effectiveness of a program is determined by
whether the participants consider it to be capable of providing for their needs. The
next sections uses the principals' perceptions and the characteristics associated with

effective professional development models to compare the I/D/E/A program and the Fairmont model.

PRINCIPALS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE PROGRAMS

When interviewed, the principals described several characteristics of training activities as beneficial in enhancing their professional development.   They explained their preference for active participation in the learning process, a feeling of ownership of session content, the establishment of a collegial support group, and the provision of a two way communication process. Each of these preferences will be explored in turn.

Level of Involvement

The level of involvement and active participation offered by the I/D/E/A sessions personalised the learning process for principals. As individuals, principals were able to focus upon their own professional development and problems related to their school's improvement project. They explained:

> I think the type of thing we are doing looks at ourselves more than anything. (M3.6)

> The *in-basket* activity is where everyone sits around and brain-storms ideas. It then all comes back to you and you've got to make the decision on what you are going to do and which way you are going to go about it. (M3.5)

> I/D/E/A is more personalised.   When you get all the principals together at the Fairmont district office it really is a large group that is going to be talked at. As a principal I prefer to have some input myself. (M1.1)

> What I've got out of I/D/E/A is more personal. (M3.1)

Each session has an *in basket* time where a particular problem will be brainstormed. You can ask questions about the problem and get further clarity but generally you just brain-storm. The person who owns the problem takes ideas away and tries some of them and then if they wish they can report back at a future session regarding their success. (F2.1)

I/D/E/A is good because you need a situation in which everyone can contribute. It allows the group to proceed at its own pace. (M2.1)

Principals felt free to contribute in I/D/E/A sessions which motivated them to be fully involved. Moreover, the smaller group size and the use of 'triads' and 'dyads' during session activities allowed for personalised involvement which actively engaged principals in the problems being addressed.[13]

The principals held a different view of the Fairmont model. They found it less engaging. Although the conference agendas were controlled by the group, principals felt that the training sessions of the Fairmont model were unable to involve them like the I/D/E/A program.

Even though the training direction in the Fairmont model was set by participative decision making, principals felt a loss of personal control which left many of them questioning the relevance of training activities. In the words of one principal:

I've learnt a lot more from the I/D/E/A sessions than from the district conferences. I've found it more relevant and I've come away with little strategies. (M3.6)

The level of involvement affected participants' feelings of ownership and control over the direction of their professional development.

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[13] As one principal explained during the validation interview, "This was one of the beauties of the I/D/E/A program for me - this working together in small groups throughout the year. We did a lot of work in groups of 2 - 3 people which I found very valuable. I found it was more supportive of me because I was forced into a situation where I had to consider things - I had to contribute. There must be a lot of people like me who are reluctant to contribute in a large group situation." (M3.7)

Ownership

Principals believed that the Fairmont model task groups experienced a degree of ownership for the conference program as a result of their personal involvement in the implementation of the program. For non-task group members, feelings of commitment were based on their collegial relationship with the members of the task group; they wanted to be supportive of their colleagues.

On the other hand, ownership of I/D/E/A sessions emerged from participants' feeling that they needed to be there and that their involvement was valued. All of the principals were actively engaged in problem solving and said:

> I prefer I/D/E/A because everyone is prepared to give. You don't feel that there is any pressure on you. (F3.3)

> Each of us is made to feel that whatever we say is of value to the group. Everyone is quite open with each other - quite willing to trade information. (M3.7)

> The Fairmont model needs to have specific workshops like the I/D/E/A sessions so that you are there for the same reason as everybody else. (M1.3)

The I/D/E/A program and the Fairmont model were both seen as capable of dealing with identified needs. However, the needs identified in the Fairmont model were seen as catering for the group and, as a result, activities may not have been relevant to everyone on all occasions. Whereas, the I/D/E/A program was described as an individualised approach:

> I/D/E/A allows the group to proceed at its own pace. New people get time to develop new concepts. It is more of an individualised approach to professional development. (M3.8)

> To me I have to determine my own professional development needs. I haven't had any outside source say, "Hey, you are going fine in this area but you may need to do a little bit more here in order to do a little bit better." There is no outside agent that comes in to identify a couple of areas that I might need to look at. (M3.1)

The I/D/E/A program's ability to cater for individuals was due to its flexibility through the in-basket activity. According to one principal:

> I liked I/D/E/A because it had a structure - you know a set pathway - things were organised. But for me, I also valued the in-basket times because there were a lot of things worrying me and it provided time for all of us to work on these issues. (F2.1)

The activities of the I/D/E/A program were predetermined - 'a set pathway'. Principals' needs were catered for by allowing time for the discussion of problems with peers during in-basket sessions. Other than this avenue, principals were encouraged to pursue their own personal professional development plan. In contrast, the Fairmont model's formalised program was based upon the participants' identified needs.

Collegial Support

When dealing with personal goals and school improvement projects, principals trusted the involvement of the collegial support group, the cornerstone of the I/D/E/A model. They felt that the input of their colleagues was of benefit in problem solving situations. Some of them explained:

> We meet quite regularly. In those initial meetings there was still a bit of uncertainty about the collegial support idea. I think the first few sessions everyone held their cards pretty close to their chest and then after the first few sessions you felt that you could trust that what you said was not going to go any further. (M1.1)

> Yes - I prefer the I/D/E/A approach because it is a collegial group. I enjoy the trust and support which the collegial support group develops when it goes down the problem solving track. (M1A.2)

> Our first I/D/E/A was over two days and a lot of it was just getting to know one another and feeling comfortable. (M3.2)

> I/D/E/A took three meetings to get people talking freely. But once you got everyone talking freely the whole atmosphere becomes different. (M3.7)

The principals felt that the trust established during I/D/E/A sessions assisted them in problem solving. For them, the concept of a collegial support group, as promoted by the I/D/E/A program, was a good means of dealing with identified needs:

> I rate the I/D/E/A approach to professional development much more highly then the conference style because you are able to hear a lot more from colleagues in a practical way. (M2.2)

> I/D/E/A works on the old network philosophy, in that, you can talk to someone else about it. (M3.5)

The collegial nature of I/D/E/A established a commitment to the program. Principals commented on the task-orientation of sessions as colleagues worked together to solve problems and listened to progress reports on school improvement projects.

Two-way Communication

In their reports on the progress of personal professional development and school improvement plans, principals indicated that the flexibility of structured I/D/E/A sessions and the use of 'triads' and 'dyads' for group discussion and problem solving encouraged feedback and two way communication.

Nevertheless, although principals rejected the concept of a lecture approach to professional development, used in the Fairmont model, they still believed that it was important to have external information presented at conference sessions. For example:

I found it very important to hear what the people from Perth had to say in terms of what was going on. It was important to get that perspective. (M1A.1)

The principals believed that the Fairmont model lacked two-way communication and said that if sessions were to be of value, time during or immediately after presentations to discuss the issues raised was needed, particularly with external presenters.

I don't feel I could pick between the I/D/E/A program and the conference approach. I would prefer a mix of the two. What would be ideal would be a two day get together where one day would be set aside for input from an external expert and the other day left for open discussion. (M1.2)

Ideally I would be keen to have the superintendent's input followed by a chance to deal with any contentious issues with collegial problem solving. From there I would like some expert input and then back to the I/D/E/A approach to work on the content received. At the end of any conference input then you need to do some problem solving to see how you can get it to work back in the school. (M3.8)

The I/D/E/A program should not stand alone just as the conference style should not stand alone. You need a balance of styles. There are things that I get from conferences that I don't get from I/D/E/A and vice versa. The concept of outside input is important and a conference can provide this. The district needs to expand its idea of professional development styles. (M1.1)

Open two way communication provided a sounding board for principals. They felt that the I/D/E/A program's collegial support process allowed them to discuss important issues and concerns related to their own performance as a principal. The open and trusting atmosphere enabled principals to feel comfortable when discussing contentious issues. Consequently, this enabled principals to clarify new concepts with colleagues and to view them in light of their own school management practices. For example:

I find the I/D/E/A group very reassuring because I'm able to compare my performance with my peers. (F3.3)

> I/D/E/A is not really that kind of thing. It's more the intimacy. Its not anything that you could achieve at a professional development level with a wide group like the one that attends the conferences. I/D/E/A makes you feel better about the job you are doing and develops that support network that you can call on. (M3.4)

> I remember one I/D/E/A session when everyone brought along their school development plans. We all agreed that we wanted to hear how everyone arrived at what they had. So it moved around the group with each person describing how they put it together. Once everyone had a chance to tell the group about their school development plan it then opened up for a bit of a general discussion. That was basically the end of the session where you had a stack of school development plans on the table for everyone to have a look at. So I thumbed through them and found what I liked and concentrated on examining this real working example of a plan by looking at the plan and talking with the principal who put it together in a one to one situation over a coffee in a relaxed atmosphere. I found it very productive.[14] (M3.6)

The gains made by principals in the I/D/E/A program were described in terms of attitude changes rather than particular knowledge or skill development. When asked about school improvements or skills, the principals made comments such as:

> The I/D/E/A program says it's about skills but it doesn't really do that. We spend a lot of time looking at individual problems and trying to analyse them but the actual acquisition of skills is not a strong feature. (M1A.2)

> No. I haven't changed what I do one bit. The I/D/E/A program has made me look more at what I do with my time and perhaps how I deal with people. It's kind of made me sit back and analyse I suppose. (M3.8)

In comparison to the Fairmont model, the I/D/E/A program provided greater participation in the learning process, a feeling of ownership through the *in-basket* sessions, collegial support, and a two way communication process. According to principals, the advantages of the Fairmont model related to the provision of external information. Principals' perceptions of the model's ability to provide for their

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[14] One principal questioned this claim, "There was supposed to be a great deal of sharing of what you were doing in regard to your school improvement plan but this was only followed to a point. You were required to front up at the next meeting with something but there weren't any sanctions if you didn't. Most people brought something though - a bit like 'show and tell' but I don't know if there was any in-depth application of theory to what people did - I guess different people got different things." (M1A.1)

professional development needs favoured the selection of the I/D/E/A program in preference to the Fairmont model. However, the I/D/E/A program dealt with only one corporate managerial need which principals perceived as important, interpersonal communication. And, although its processes were seen as beneficial, principals did not feel they had gained specific skills in this area.

This section used the principals' perceptions to compare the I/D/E/A program and the Fairmont model. It established a set of characteristics which principals perceived as beneficial to enhancing their professional development. The next section uses characteristics associated with successful professional development models as identified through research literature. This list of characteristics was used as the final yardstick for comparing the I/D/E/A program and the Fairmont model.

SUCCESSFUL PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT PRACTICE

Research has indicated that professional development activities are more likely to be successful if they possess four broad characteristics (Daresh and La Plant, 1984). They should be needs based, collegial, involving and developmental. Firstly, from a needs' perspective, a professional development course should provide a permanent structure which is able to quickly address the specific needs and concerns of participants which arise from changes in the work place. Secondly, a professional development program should facilitate the building of long term relationships between colleagues. A collegial base enhances on-going development of course knowledge, skills and attitudes. Thirdly, professional development programs should personally motivate participants by actively involving them through two way communication, hands on activities, practical sections, collegially grouped activities and convenient timetabling and location. Finally, programs should focus on fostering a positive attitude towards the continued development of new knowledge and skills.

Professional Development as Needs Based

The I/D/E/A program and the Fairmont model are both needs based. However, they differ in the way they identify participants' needs. The Fairmont model's needs analysis was formalised and based on consensus decision making which established priority areas of need which became the training focus for the year. This process allowed the principals to set their own management training agenda. However, there was little capacity for participants to introduce personal issues of concern or to redirect the main focus of the training sessions.[15]

The I/D/E/A program consisted of a predetermined training curriculum. Although it had set goals identified by external program planners, time was set aside during each monthly session for participants to raise important issues. The *in-basket* time allowed participants to identify current concerns and needs which were dealt with immediately by the collegial support group. In addition to collegial support, principals were encouraged to seek their own solutions by formulating a personal professional development plan. The Fairmont model, on the other hand, attempted to relate its actual training program to the needs of the principals.

Professional Development as Promoting Collegiality

Successful professional development programs build long term relationships between the participants involved in the program. This allows participants to feel comfortable when asking questions and dealing with new concepts and difficult or contentious issues. Moreover, it allows for on-going discussion of ideas with colleagues outside

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[15] One principal challenged this point, 'My needs were the needs being met by the I/D/E/A program whilst at the same time I appreciated the input from the Fairmont model on the managerial training I needed.' (M3.5)

of training sessions. The need to establish a network of collegial support was seen as a desirable characteristic by the local principals. For example:

> Where I got the most help was from I/D/E/A's collegial support group. We were able to pursue areas of common need. I prefer the relaxed and confidential environment of the smaller collegial group (M2.2)

> I haven't heard anyone at a conference say, "How the hell do you do this?" or "I can't do that" or "I've had a problem doing this". Whereas at the I/D/E/A sessions we were all prepared to get down to practicalities as to how you actually do something. Things were important to me and I never felt threatened about really getting down to what was worrying me. (M3.6)

The Fairmont model allowed time during training sessions for principals to share understandings and ideas on topics that were raised during sessions. However, these particular sessions, called 'sharing time', were sometimes foregone due to time constraints. Consequently, organisers of training sessions in the Fairmont model did not perceive 'sharing time' as an important part of the program. The infrequent nature of these sessions meant they were unable to build long term relationships between the participants.

The 1990 Term 1 conference saw the 'sharing time' of the Fairmont model omitted from the program because of the demands of competing activities. This annoyed the principals, a reaction which demonstrated the group's desire for collegial interaction within the professional development program.[16]

The I/D/E/A program specifically focused on the development of collegial relationships amongst group members. The goal of 'getting started' was to develop

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[16] Yes 'sharing time' was often put to one side because it was felt that there wasn't enough time for it. I can remember one 'sharing time', they divided people up into various groups and they didn't know what to do with me. They didn't know if I belonged in the big school group, the small school group or what? So they put me with all the guys from out in the smaller remote schools and it came home to me that a lot of the things they were saying had no relevance to me and vice versa I suppose. (F2.1)

the collegial support group. It attempted to clarify group norms and reinforce the importance of interpersonal skills. I/D/E/A sessions used collegial support as an aid to problem solving. The following sub-goals of session 4 illustrate these observations:

- To share progress on personal professional development implementation
- To provide support and assistance in problem solving (I/D/E/A, 1987, p.4-1).

Principals involved in the I/D/E/A program found collegial support an effective means of involving them in the learning process. When comparing the two programs, principals said the Fairmont model could be improved if it allowed time for collegial interaction like the I/D/E/A program.

The I/D/E/A program had the capacity to build the long term collegial relationships needed to establish support networks. Principals said that professional networks were of benefit in the day to day running of schools. They explained how the I/D/E/A program was slow to start as individuals took time to come to terms with group relationships. In the early stages, principals tended to keep things to themselves and were not ready to open up and expose possible short comings in their own performance. However, this was short lived and soon participants were actively involved in sharing experiences and ideas as a means of problem solving and generating new and varied ideas. As a result, the level of individual involvement in the activities was enhanced.

Professional Development as Involving

A successful professional development program actively involves all participants. In doing so it needs to allow time for participants to discuss ideas, offer solutions to problems and to raise questions. Two way communication generates group-owned ideas and solutions. Feelings of ownership enhance involvement and personal motivation.

Professional development should be convenient. In other words, it needs to be conducted at times when participants can be involved. It is also important to note that regularly spaced short sessions are required in order to avoid information overload. New ideas need to be absorbed by participants before coming together again to deal with problems related to implementation.

The Fairmont model tended to encourage sessions that delivered new information. Presenters were invited to run sessions varying from a couple of hours to one and half days in length. Depending on the time span of sessions, presenters provided either a straight lecture or a lecture and practical group activity. As a consequence, principals expressed a lack of ownership for sessions offered by the Fairmont model. They did not feel personally motivated, although at times were fully engaged in the activity which had been organised by the presenter to have them think about the issues involved in the topic. [17]

The process of the Fairmont model provided two days of professional development each term. The agenda offered on these days was crammed with activities and presentation sessions. Organisers felt an intense program was necessary because it

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[17] One principal commented during his validation interview that, "There were times when lecture presentations were followed by group discussions but when the group gets up to 20 - 30 people then I'm afraid you just can't get the interaction you need. You still find its only the very vocal people who come forth with their ideas." (M3.8)

would be a long time before principals would meet again. The Fairmont model did not allow time during sessions for any follow up to problems and issues.

The I/D/E/A program, unlike the Fairmont model did not rely upon outside presenters. Sessions were controlled by trained facilitators, who used the expertise of the group to generate solutions to problems. Principals felt their contributions were valued by this process. The professional development environment created was personally motivating for those who played a part in training sessions. They came away with practical strategies which could be applied to the school situation.

The I/D/E/A program ran sessions for one day each month. Each session focused on one specific goal. Principals were able to discuss problems and solutions and develop strategies for implementing ideas at the school level. Sessions provided time for sharing progress related to implementation. The following sub goals illustrate the I/D/E/A program's process of follow up in each of its sessions:

- To share the perceived norms about communication in the respective schools (I/D/E/A, 1987, p.5-1).
- To report progress on the school improvement projects (I/D/E/A, 1987, p.7-1).
- To share progress on personal professional development and school improvement effort (I/D/E/A, 1987, p.8-1).

Professional Development as Developmental

A professional development program should foster the continuous development of new knowledge and skills. In other words, participants' knowledge and understandings, skills and attitudes should be built up over a period time through a sequence of graded sessions. Programs intending to build these understandings and skills should be developmental as opposed to 'one-of' presentations.

The Fairmont model was needs based and as a result avoided the label of 'knee jerk reaction' to structural change. However, sessions offered by the conference approach were not intended to be developmental. Conference time was not set aside to review understanding and implementation problems associated with the content of previous conferences.[18]

However, the link between the content of the Term 3 conference to the Term 1 and 2 conferences provided an unintentional developmental basis to the program.

The I/D/E/A program took a more deliberate approach than the Fairmont model. Participants were continually encouraged to report back to the collegial support group on the progress they were making in regard to personal and school improvement projects. The collegial relationship built up between participants fostered a commitment to reporting and sharing. As a result, individuals were more committed to implementation and analysis of improvement. An ethos of continuous improvement resulted as individuals continued to seek answers to new problems which were encountered at the school level.

Analysis of the two programs demonstrates that the I/D/E/A program was collegial, involving and developmental. Whereas, the Fairmont model was needs based and developmental. As a result, both professional development models demonstrated characteristics associated with successful professional development programs.

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[18] I agree that the Fairmont model tended to lack any deliberate developmental approach. I believe you need to run with one thing for the year and do it properly. (M3.7)

CONCLUSION

The input evaluation involved three comparisons in an effort to answer the question:

> Is there justification for the selection of the I/D/E/A program as a
> corporate management model for the Fairmont district?

Firstly, the content of the I/D/E/A program was corporate managerial.[19] Although it
dealt more extensively with corporate managerial issues then the Fairmont model, it
only catered for one need identified by the local principals.

Secondly, in terms of the participants' perceptions of the two programs, the principals
generally preferred the I/D/E/A program to the Fairmont model. However, principals
noted a need for district and central office and external expert input in their
professional development, an element missing from the I/D/E/A program. From a
corporate managerial perspective, district and central office input is an important
feature in providing knowledge of organisational values and directions. Principals'
views and comments suggested support for the selection of the I/D/E/A program as a
professional development model. However, they believed the I/D/E/A program could
be improved if it included some degree of external input.[20]

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[19] I feel far more confident about school development planning and decision making groups as
a result of my participation in the I/D/E/A program. The agenda of the I/D/E/A program was
mainly about the management problems facing principals. In this regard I believe it did deal
with my corporate managerial needs. (M1.3)

[20] I thought the comparison between the Fairmont model and the I/D/E/A program was only
fair up to a point. One of the features which could have received more attention was the genius
of the Fairmont model, that is, the rationale for using it at all. The availability of input was
one of the original reasons for the Fairmont model. (M1A.1)

I agree with the need for Ministry input. I would like to think there is some way of integrating
the better elements of both programs. I believe there is a place for a lecture type approach,
particularly when the issues relate to everyone. Even if it is only as a grounding in some areas.
This could then be followed by small group work. (M3.1)

The third comparison used the characteristics of successful professional development programs to compare the two models. This comparison discovered that the Fairmont model was needs based and developmental. However, principals felt there was little opportunity for clarification of needs, or time to cater for individual concerns within the Fairmont model. On the other hand, the I/D/E/A program developed collegiality and was more involving.

In the final analysis, it can be concluded that limited grounds exist for the selection of the I/D/E/A program due to its coverage of the principals' most important need for interpersonal communication skills. However, given the overall comparison's balanced perspective of both programs, which reflected their capacity to be successful, final judgement should be reserved.

The next evaluation determines the extent to which present modifications to the Fairmont model have affected its capacity to provide for the corporate managerial needs of principals. It attempts to identify the effectiveness of modifications to the original bi-partite brokerage-support model.

CHAPTER 11
PROCESS EVALUATION

The intention of the Fairmont model was to provide a planning and implementation process that would develop a professional development program to provide for the needs of local principals. The model commenced operation in June 1989 and completed its first cycle of application in December 1990. Prior to this period of implementation, developmental decisions regarding the model's processes were intuitive as no practical information on its capacity to cater for principals' needs existed. The lack of a trial period increased the likelihood that modifications to the model would have to be made during the implementation phase to overcome unanticipated problems.

The purpose of the process evaluation is to determine the extent to which the Fairmont model was implemented according to plan. Thus, the key question is:

> To what extent did any modifications to the model affect its capacity to provide for the corporate managerial needs of primary school principals?

Following Stufflebeam's (1983) approach, the process evaluation, in addressing the focus question, involves three main stages. The first stage compares the Fairmont model's intended processes to the actual implementation in order to highlight possible modifications. The next stage of the evaluation is pursued if the Fairmont model was not implemented according to plan. In this study, it means that after changes to the intended implementation are identified, the principals' perceptions of the model's processes and its actual implementation are used to support an analysis which determines the capacity of any modifications to enhance the corporate managerial training of local primary school principals. The final step reacts to the outcomes of the second stage in the form of conclusions to the process evaluation. Table 24

summarises the steps and provides the headings which denote the structure of the process evaluation.

TABLE 24
PROCESS EVALUATION

The Fairmont Model
Was the Fairmont model implemented according to plan?

Yes   No

Modifications
Did changes enhance the model's capacity to meet corporate managerial needs?

Yes   No

Conclusions.
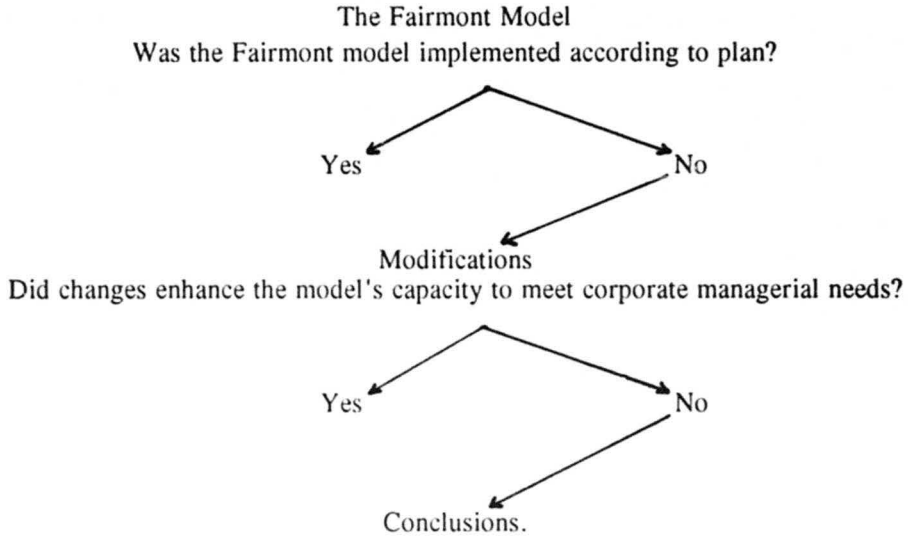
THE FAIRMONT MODEL

The Fairmont model, which originated from the bi-partite brokerage-support model, was to be a two year planning and implementation cycle consisting of three structures: planning, decision making and implementation. The planning structure consisted of the representative planning committee which comprised representatives from administrative groups with an interest in the professional development offered by the model. The committee's function was to write a professional development plan. This involved identifying and prioritising needs, examining future directions, and investigating delivery modes in terms of timing, co-ordination, resources and evaluation. In addition, the committee was responsible for overseeing the organisation of professional development programs and activities. Throughout 1990, the aim of

the representative planning committee was to produce a professional development plan for ratification by the decision making group at the Term 4 conference.

The second structure of the Fairmont model, the decision making group, comprised the district superintendent and district principals. The function of the decision making committee was to accept and authorise the professional development plan and approve the allocation of resources. After the plan had been approved and resources allocated, responsibility for implementation was delegated to a third group.

Task groups comprising 3 - 4 principals formed the third tier of the Fairmont model. Each nominated task group was responsible for implementing part of the professional development plan. Specifically, they were to implement the professional development plan by: co-ordinating and evaluating professional development activities; providing feedback to the representative planning committee; and, liaising with the executive officer of the planning committee. In order to summarise the intended processes and functions of the Fairmont model in planning and implementing professional development over a two year cycle, Table 1 which assisted in providing the background to the study, is repeated on page 186.

The Fairmont model, throughout 1990 did not fulfil all the functions according to the steps outlined in Table 1. Contrary to the intended process and functions there were two major changes. First, the role of the task group was increased to include planning as well as implementation. For example:

> It's the task group that actually does it all. It develops the professional development program and addresses all the professional development that's required. (M3.1)

Second, the representative planning committee concentrated on the development of a permanent delivery structure as opposed to the production of a professional
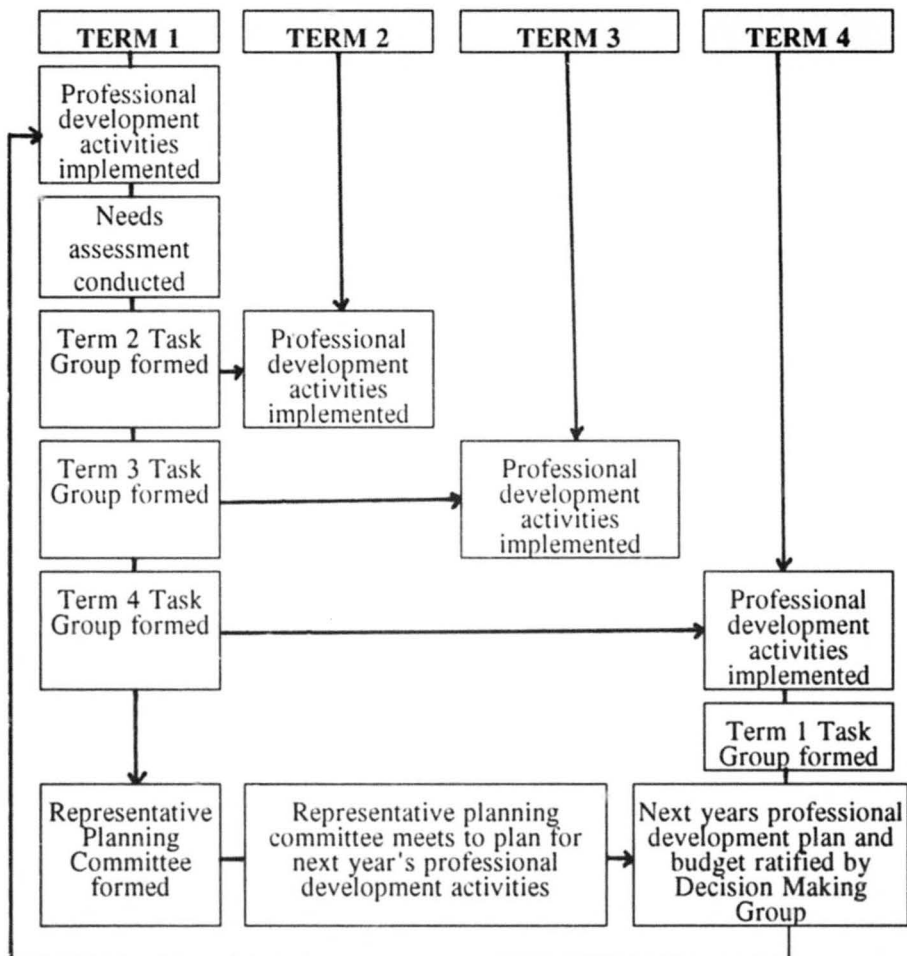
development plan. The following comments provide evidence of this change to the
model's original intent:

> The planning committee focussed all its attention on working out how
> we were going to structure the two day conference. They seemed
> quite determined to organise the 'what' and 'when' issues. (M1.2)

> I thought they were supposed to put forward a plan for the next year.
> (F2.1)

> The representative planning committee worked on formalising the two
> day structure which was a repeat of a traditional approach. It was
> what people were used to using. (M1A.1)

TABLE 1
THE MODEL - PROCESS AND FUNCTIONS

TERM 1	TERM 2	TERM 3	TERM 4
Professional development activities implemented			
Needs assessment conducted			
Term 2 Task Group formed	Professional development activities implemented		
Term 3 Task Group formed		Professional development activities implemented	
Term 4 Task Group formed			Professional development activities implemented
			Term 1 Task Group formed
Representative Planning Committee formed	Representative planning committee meets to plan for next year's professional development activities		Next years professional development plan and budget ratified by Decision Making Group

The representative planning committee's swing away from establishing a professional development plan to the development of a permanent delivery structure created the need for task groups to plan as well as implement. After selecting the focus for a conference from the prioritised needs list, the task group was expected to resolve a number of planning issues related to establishing direction and content.

MODIFICATIONS

This section of the process evaluation analyses the modifications to the task groups and the representative planning committee. It uses the principals' perceptions to determine the effectiveness of the modifications in enhancing corporate management training. In other words, did the development of a permanent delivery structure by the representative planning committee or the expansion of the task groups' role to include planning, enhance the Fairmont model's capacity to meet the principals' corporate managerial needs as outlined in Table 19 on page 150.

Task Groups

Expanding the role of the task groups increased the primary school principals' level of collaboration, control and accountability for the provision of professional development. This change enhanced the model's capacity to provide for the primary school principals' corporate managerial needs. Principals' perceptions of the group needs assessment and the role of the task groups is presented as evidence for this claim.

The intention of the group needs assessment was to provide the basis for professional development planning for the Fairmont model. However, as a planning tool it provided a prioritised needs list which was perceived as being too broad and lacking the detail necessary to ensure that professional development activities addressed

specific concerns.   Principals believed that the needs assessment of the **Fairmont** model, in catering for their corporate managerial needs, should have been more than broad directional *statements of intent*.   They felt that a clearer and more explicit understanding as to the nature of each need was required:

> The problem is that you have thirty different individuals and as a result you are going to have thirty different areas of need within the identified need. We're going to have to be a lot more specific if we are to find the real commonalities on which we can concentrate our energy. (M3.1)

> Well firstly I would like it to be more specific of my requirements from the needs list. What is needed is follow-up in trying to identify what I'm after in terms of professional development. (M1A.2)

> I think that is where we need to get serious. We need to clarify specifically the areas within a topic that you want to have addressed. If you don't do that then you have people coming away from conferences saying, "That was great but I already knew it" or "I got nothing from that." (M3.7)

> The very broad headings we put our professional development needs under leaves them wide open for various interpretations. We are dealing with headings that are far too broad. (M3.5)

Furthermore, principals sought to formalise the management of information regarding their professional development needs. They felt that a systematic approach would ensure the clarification of identified needs and a tighter link between priorities and resource allocation, thus reducing a sense of an ad hoc or haphazard approach. For example, one principal explained:

> Every principal should be questioned as to what they want answered at a workshop. For example, before we attend a conference we could be sent a sheet that asked, "What do you specifically want to know about in the next conference?" or "What are your specific concerns in relation to - say performance indicators?" Then you can write down the things that you need and then they make sure that those questions are answered or those skills are covered. (M3.6)

Throughout interviews principals explained that due to a lack of information it was very difficult to organise training activities. Consequently, the task groups' role was extended to include planning which assisted in 'maximising' as opposed to 'satisficing' the Fairmont model's capacity to cater for principals' corporate managerial needs. One principal's experience as a task group member illustrated the effort he was prepared to go to in order to find and engage appropriate presenters as well as overcome the lack of detailed information on what principals actually needed. In regard to finding a presenter, he said:

> As a task group member I was supposed to get someone who was an expert on the theme of the conference and it was a real problem because I didn't know where to start - I was only given a topic and told I was to find someone. (M3.1)

To overcome this problem he contacted a colleague located in a metropolitan district education office for help in identifying possible presenters. He noted that this was to be the first of many telephone conversations with a variety of possible presenters, all of whom sought details to clarify the group's requirements:

> I found it took a long time because the information I was given was extremely broad and lacking in detail - that's one of the problems with the Fairmont model. It made it hard from my perspective as a task group member because the direction I was given was in general terms. I didn't realise when I started how broad the topic was. It wasn't till I started ringing around and making enquires that I discovered that I had to make some decisions here. What it meant - I suppose - was that the task groups had to make decisions about what was wanted. (M3.1)

The problem of organising conferences with a minimum of information was common to task groups. Planning questions, in terms of 'What to do?', needed to be answered by task groups prior to moving onto the implementation questions related to 'How to do it?' Principals described how task group members continually telephoned and checked with others on matters ranging from small logistical problems to the overall

content of the conference in an effort to ensure the quality of professional development activities:

> The task group was responsible for marrying reality with desire. As members of a task group we had to meet regularly throughout the year, and more often as the conference drew nearer, to discuss planning, what we were finding out and to redefine what we were trying to achieve. We even went out and discussed things with the other principals. (M1.3)

> For one of the conferences I was part of the task group and we virtually had to redo the needs assessment. There was three of us so we divided the district into three groups and we each got onto the phone. Then we came back together again. And then we got back on the phone again - we seemed to be forever talking to other principals and amongst ourselves as a task group as to what was the best thing do and how to go about doing it. (M3.7)

> The main thing I got out of being a task group member was the peer networking and a sense of making a contribution to the whole group. (M1.1)

> Yes the task groups contacted me and I had a chance to discuss my needs with one of them. It was good. I felt I was able to be more specific about what I needed. (F3.3)

> I'm optimistic about what the district is offering because the task groups are getting things sorted out. For example, we've had telephone conferences where we are able to work on our priorities. (F2.1)

Principals responded positively to the task groups' collegial approach to organising professional development conferences. Moreover, principals described how they focused on planning and implementing the best possible training experience because of their personal participation and involvement in what was organised and their direct accountability to peers for the outcomes. For example, principals said:

I had a vested interest in what was planned and organised because I had to sit through it as well. Therefore as a task group member, I didn't want to be responsible for a dud because not only did I have to sit through it but I would have to sit through everybody moaning and groaning about it. My own personal and professional pride made me work at doing a good job because I felt directly accountable to my peers. I suppose that's the price you have to pay if you want control. At times I found it incredibly time consuming to be involved but again it's the price for control. If you have to hand it over to someone outside the schools to plan and organise then you begin to lose control of what is going on.[21] (M3.8)

The task group process took up a lot of my time but I saw this in the same way as giving up my time to be part of the I/D/E/A program. That took a lot of time too. I don't believe you can have a situation where giving up time for one approach is OK and not for the other. Yes it took a bit of time and it took a bit of organising but if I couldn't handle this then I didn't have to volunteer I suppose. (M3.2)

The expanded role of the task groups enhanced the model's capacity to cater for the principals' corporate managerial needs by giving more control to those with a vested interest in the outcomes.   Task group members, due to collegiality, personal involvement in the outcomes and direct accountability were motivated to determine the specific requirements of professional development activities.[22]

The original intention of the Fairmont model was for the representative planning committee to spend the year clarifying needs and identifying the best means by which

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[21] During the validation interviews one principal supported this claim, when she said, "The task group situation for me was a useless experience because in my particular case we lost control of what was happening. Other principals in other task groups seemed to take pride in the conferences they organised. But in our task group, which had four principals and the district education officer, all the direction seemed to come from somewhere else. We were told that a group of people were coming to the district at the time of our conference and that it would be a good idea to use them. As a result, there were only certain topics available. We were told these people were coming and that we had to use them. I felt I had little ir,ʷ and that the whole thing could have been handled from the district office without usinʳ ʌp my time." (F2.1)

Another principal voiced a similar opinion, "Personally I didn't find the role of a task member that difficult. I tended to find it a bit along the lines of scary becaʑse I knew we were going to be judged by what we came up with." (M1A.1)

[22] One principal supported this notion by commenting on the professionalism of task groups in organising conferences, "I thought it was good that the principals took on the planning and organising. When given a concept they got on with sorting out the details and they got onto the things I needed. I was quite happy with the way things went." (M3.4)

they could be addressed and implemented in the following year. However, once the prioritised needs lists was established it was handed to task groups for implementation without further clarification. Task groups used the list to determine the focus of training sessions in the same year as they were identified, therefore eliminating the intended two year cycle:

> We haven't ended up with a two year cycle. The representative planning committee's not planning and even if they did they would be planning to conduct professional development activities that the task groups have already done. (M1.2)

Consequently, the representative planning committee's need to plan was reduced which allowed them to concentrate on the establishment of a permanent delivery structure.

Representative Planning Committee

The second major change to the intentions of the Fairmont model was the representative planning committee's role of developing a permanent delivery structure. The original proposal envisaged the development of a professional development plan that prescribed various delivery modes for implementation as opposed to just one conference style for addressing needs. How training needs were to be addressed was to depend upon such factors as the size and nature of the participant group and the importance of the need. However, a plan was not developed and throughout 1990, task groups organised training activities to address identified needs. As a result, the representative planning committee, as part of their function, turned their attention to developing a permanent delivery structure for professional development by simply formalising the traditional conference style:

> The permanent structure that was developed was probably due to a lack of imagination. You know, where we have always done it this way so its easier if we formalise it to keep doing it this way. (M1.1)

The permanent structure consisted of a two day conference each term. Over the two days, time was allocated to administration matters, information updates and professional development. Administrative matters dealt with issues such as identifying task group members and conducting needs assessments. Information updates related to central and district office input sessions. Professional development consisted of task group organised training activities based upon identified needs and sharing time. The perceived advantages of a permanent structure related to the assistance it provided task groups with implementation, and the knowledge of organisational values and direction it provided participants through the use of information updates.[23]

Throughout the development of the model it was argued that the organisation and implementation of professional development within the Fairmont district required a great deal of lead time. The permanent structure allowed approximately ten weeks between conferences. The provision of lead time was an important element in catering for principals' corporate managerial needs due to the geographic isolation of the Fairmont district and the model's use of task groups. Given their school work load, principals explained they needed time to clarify needs, discuss the structure of the forthcoming program, identify possible providers, contact various people regarding the suitability of presenters and negotiate times, course content and costs:

> I found the permanent structure limiting but at the same time it was helpful, because as a task group member it told me exactly how much time I had. While the permanent structure limited the flexibility of the task group's planning it was still a limitation that the group wanted. (M3.1)

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[23] One principal did not see any advantage to the permanent structure. He felt the delivery style needed to vary, "We really did just follow the one style of presentation and that was it. I feel it would have been beneficial if the style of presentation had varied." (M3.2)

The permanent structure didn't help find presenters to provide the professional development but it did help in organising them because there was time to negotiate exactly what we were after and to sort everything out. (M1.3)

Moreover, the permanent structure specifically enabled the principals' need for knowledge and understanding of organisation values and direction to be addressed. The session set aside for central and district office input enhanced the capacity of the Fairmont model to meet this corporate leadership need identified by principals which was described by them as an important part of their professional development.[24] For example:

The conferences should provide up-dated information from the Ministry. It gives us a chance to have our say to the central office personnel as well. They actually take it away and think about it. (M1.3)

The whole conference seems to consist of a lot of input. Perhaps I need up-dated information at various times throughout the year. (M3.4)

50% of our conferences are self-directing whereas the other 50% is where the central office takes over. It's important that the central office does have its time and this needs to be clearly spelt out. (M3.5)

I believe the conference has to be a place where a certain amount of time has to be set aside to ensure certain things happen. In other words, there needs to be time for explaining all these changes from the Ministry. It's the most efficient way of communicating to such a large group. (F3.3)

One of the things I get out of conferences is general information on where the Ministry is heading and what is expected of me. (M1A.2)

You definitely need to provide time for district and central office input but that's all. (M3.4)

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[24] Two principals objected to this claim. They said, "I didn't want to come in and hear a lot of 'umming' and 'arghing' about Ministry direction. I get enough of that across my desk. Personally I feel a lot of the time was wasted on things like that and there wasn't enough development of the group." (F3.3); and, "The permanent structure tended to make conference organisation worse because we had two days of which a half a day was set aside for district input which was really admin. stuff not professional development. I see that as a waste of time. There should be other mechanisms set aside for the up-dating of information." (M3.7)

> The principals' conference should be a forum in which new information, which we haven't received from the central office can be presented. I don't see it as a time for discussing 'Fred Blogg's' problems. (M1.2)

> I found the district office input sessions quite forgettable. I know it was trying hard to convey the corporate message but it really did just boil down to memo stuff. It wasn't until we got a central office person that you got to the main message - which was really important. But the district office effort was pretty meaningless. (M3.6)

Although the permanent structure appeared to enhance the model's capacity to provide knowledge related to corporate leadership, several principals believed it to be counter productive in several ways. Firstly, its inflexibility did not allow the model to be responsive to change or opportunities. And secondly, it did not allow for follow-up training sessions.

Principals felt the permanent structure did not allow for issues related to recent events to be raised during training sessions. The amount of organisation and time needed to lock in all parts of a two day conference meant that outside requests for last minute changes and inclusions would be disrespectful of the efforts of task group members:

> The permanent structure does not allow for any flexibility. (M3.7)

> The whole permanent approach thing to professional development was inherited from the past and no one appears to be willing to touch it. It needs to be made to constantly fit the group by changing and pruning off the things which are not required. (M1.1)

> The professional development with its 'one-of' style is a bit hit and miss for me. To a certain degree I think this is because the conference agenda is too rigid. There needs to be more flexibility in order to cater for changes which occur throughout the year. (M3.4)

According to principals, the Fairmont model's rigidity inhibited its capacity to deal with immediate issues. Given the match between the corporate managerial needs and the organised programs, it can be argued that the development of a permanent structure, although negatively perceived, actually enhanced the model's capacity to

provide for principals' corporate managerial training. The structure ensured central office input at every conference which met their need for knowledge of organisational values and directions as well as providing the lead time necessary to organise conferences.

Finally, the permanent structure was seen as denying 'follow-up' to professional development activities. This view was based upon the belief that professional development activities from one conference to the next were not necessarily related. Consequently, some principals felt that 'follow-up' activities between conferences needed to become part of the permanent structure in order to improve the model's capacity to provide for their corporate managerial needs. For example:

> I feel there needs to be more time spent collecting the ideas of people who face the same day to day problems. You definitely need outside input from someone but then it needs to be followed-up sometime later. I think it would be an improvement if presenters gave a 'back-at-school' type of activity to investigate. Then as a group of principals we could follow-up by meeting to discuss how we got on with the activity. (M3.6)

CONCLUSIONS

The process evaluation discussed two modifications which occurred during the implementation of the Fairmont model in 1990. The analysis sought to identify the effect of these changes on the Fairmont model's capacity to provide for the corporate managerial needs of primary school principals. Generally, it found that the modifications enhanced the model's capacity to provide for these needs. This applied to the extension of the task group's role to include the clarification of needs. Overcoming the lack of detailed information regarding the nature of prioritised needs was important issue in improving the Fairmont model's capacity to be successful.

The principals agreed that the modified role of the task group increased their level of collaboration, ownership and accountability for the provision of professional development. In the light of the characteristics associated with successful professional development programs, then, this outcome was a positive step in enhancing the capacity of the Fairmont model to meet the needs of principals.

The permanent structure of the Fairmont model provided a means of ensuring regular professional development for principals in a remote district as well as central and district office input at each conference. Although it was felt that the permanent structure limited the possibility for regular follow-up sessions and flexibility within the program it still enhanced its capacity to address an important corporate managerial need identified by principals.

The question regarding the outcomes of the Fairmont model remains a separate issue. In other words, the changes may have enhanced the Fairmont model's potential to provide for professional development needs, but what principals actually gained from the program is the focus of the product evaluation.

CHAPTER 12
PRODUCT EVALUATION

The product evaluation aims to determine the extent to which the perceived outcomes of the Fairmont model related to principals' development in corporate managerialism. Thus, the specific question to be answered is:

> From the view point of the participants, what were the positive and negative outcomes of the Fairmont model in terms of developing corporate managerial skills?

The Fairmont model, as it operated throughout 1990, involved principals in both professional development activities and the planning and implementing of programs. This level of participation provided scope for generating a range of positive and negative outcomes which may have been intended or unintended. The product evaluation, which limits its focus to corporate managerial outcomes, discusses the content and the processes of the Fairmont model in terms of enhancing principals' knowledge, skills and attitudes in management functions related to planning, organising, leading and controlling. No attempt is made to determine whether in fact changes occurred in these areas. Instead, the evaluation is restricted to principals' perceptions of whether or not the Fairmont model made a difference.

By way of a preface to this chapter, it must be emphasised that the functions of school management do not fit as neatly and precisely into the four processes of corporate management, as the framework might suggest. In practice, the boundaries are far more diffuse. Principals, in dealing with day to day problems and issues, undertake and carry out tasks which overlap and mesh with a combination of management processes. As with any conceptual model, the usefulness of the framework used in this study relates to its capacity to assist in the understanding of management and not as a reflection of reality. Consequently, many of the outcomes of the Fairmont model

could have been classified as part of two or more processes. Stoner et al. (1985, p.18) believe it is important to keep the processes separate but acknowledge the complicated nature of management:

> For example, we saw that standards and benchmarks are used as a means of controlling employees actions, but, obviously, establishing such standards is also an inherent part of the planning process. Often taking corrective action, which we also introduced as a controlling activity, often involves an adjustment in plans.

The complex nature of management influenced the decision to structure the product evaluation according to the intentions of the Fairmont model as opposed to the components of the corporate managerial framework. Therefore this chapter considers the positive and negative responses of principals regarding the development of corporate managerial skills under the headings of: performance indicators, school budgeting, motivating staff and organisational values and directions.

The findings of the product evaluation rely upon data gathered from interview sessions with principals. Although this limited approach prevents the identification of all outcomes, and an assessment of the extent to which the Fairmont model was responsible for bringing about changes, it was not possible to extend the evaluation beyond this level of data collection. Given the time constraints associated with research and the application of findings, it was neither within the evaluator's means nor practical to collect additional data by interviewing teachers and ancillary staff, making observations in the fifteen associated schools and exploring the environment for other factors which may have influenced principal behaviour in order to attribute outcomes to the model.

PERFORMANCE INDICATORS

The management processes of corporate planning and controlling are closely linked. For example, the main aim of management's controlling process is to ensure that planned outcomes are achieved. Therefore performance indicators fit within the planning and controlling processes. During planning, the writing of performance indicators is part of the *planned data* used to monitor outcomes during the implementation stage (Stoner, et al., 1985, pp.160-161). An intended outcome of the Term 1 and 3 professional development conferences was to develop principals' knowledge, understanding and skills in writing performance indicators as part of school development planning. As a result, this training focus had the capacity to develop corporate managerial skills in planning and controlling.

The principals of the Fairmont district identified the need to develop knowledge and skills in writing performance indicators. In reference to the capacity of the Term 1 conference to address this need, principals explained:

> I'm still not sure about performance indicators. I still need time to reflect on what was said and to gather further information. (M3.4)

> I think I need to give it a term or two and then come back to it and share some ideas. (F2.1)

A further comment, which reinforced the limited success of the Term 1 conference, helps to illustrate the theoretical presentation of performance indicators as a planning skill:

> I think I need more as far as performance indicators go. I think I need more because I will be writing performance indicators out of context. The session was more of a 'here they are' and 'these are the reasons why we have them' - so have a bit of a go at writing some. (M3.8)

Although the conference provided background knowledge on performance indicators, principals felt that the training session was not practical and the presentation uninteresting and non-involving. As a result, the intended outcome of the Term 1 conference was negative. [25] However, it unintentionally provided useful background knowledge and information for the Term 3 conference on school development planning. This unintended outcome was perceived positively by principals:

> I think the Term 1 conference on performance indicators gave me useful information and background knowledge. (M1.3)

> The workshop on performance indicators was useful to know but it didn't motivate me to go back to school and write them as though they were going out of fashion. However, I must admit it was helpful to know about them, at least, for the Term 3 conference. (M1A.1)

> The Term 1 conference was just an introduction to performance indicators for me. I guess it put things into perspective and gave a bit of background on them. It told me that this is the way the Ministry is going and why we were going down that track. But it wasn't until I actually started to link them to school development planning in Term 3 that I felt I was really starting to write them as they were meant to be written. (M3.8)

The Term 1 conference on performance indicators introduced principals to a technical device which links corporate planning and controlling. Principals gained knowledge of performance indicators as a planning mechanism which establishes a means of ensuring the monitoring of objectives during implementation.

The Term 3 conference intended to develop principals' skills in planning by simulating the writing of a school development plan which identified 'language' as its main priority. Such an approach drew a positive reaction. According to principals, the success of the Term 3 conference was due to a number of factors. Firstly, it was

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[25] One principal disagreed with this point, "Actually grasping what performance indicators were at the first term conference helped a great deal. I needed to understand them because I saw it as my role to get others back at the school involved in doing this type of thing and if I didn't know what they were then it was going to make life pretty difficult." (M1.1)

developmentally linked to the first term conference. Secondly, it was a practical activity which dealt with a relevant curriculum area. And, thirdly the presenters were credible.

The developmental nature of the Term 3 conference enhanced a positive outcome by building upon information already presented. It confirmed principals' knowledge and understandings which had developed from the introduction provided at the Term 1 conference. Since this first introduction, principals had time to consider, discuss and experiment with performance indicators at the school level. [26] A range of principals' comments underline the positive outcome of the Term 3 conference:

> The Term 3 conference was the best because it looked at performance indicators again. This really helped my understanding of school development planning because it showed me how performance indicators fitted into education. (M3.5)

> The content of the Term 3 conference clarified where we are heading in school development planning. The presenter made it very clear how to link school development planning and performance indicators - it was very specific in that regard. (M3.2)

> Performance indicators and school development planning make more sense to me now as a result of the Term 3 conference. That conference gave me a better feeling because things were starting to gel in my mind. (M1.2)

> The Term 3 conference was the best because it helped me put everything together. (M3.6)

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[26] Throughout validation meetings principals confirmed the importance of the link between the Term 1 and 3 conference as an important factor in their development of skills in corporate planning. For example, one principal said, "At the Term 3 conference I was able to say, 'Hey, what I found out was this' or 'This is what it was like for me'. The Term 1 conference gave me a taster to go off and play with performance indicators and when it came to the Term 3 conference I had the background in them that let me explore them in greater depth. I was able to really question them. As a result of having time to deal with them and then the follow-up I think I am now writing purposeful indicators that are realistic and achievable." (M3.1). While another principal explained, "I felt there was a developmental link between the Term 1 and the Term 3 conferences. What came out of it was quite successful for me." (F3.3)

Principals felt 'language', as a priority for school development planning, was an important focus area. The relevance of the activity as well as the presentation style were important elements which contributed to a positive outcome. Principals commented on their full involvement in what they saw as a practical workshop activity. They had the opportunity to discuss ideas and were comfortable with the two-way communication process which prevailed.

A third factor which principals identified as contributing to the positive outcomes of the Term 3 conference was the credibility of the presenters. Principals noted that the presenters had practical experience in the area and were well placed to lead them in this professional development activity. One comment which expressed this view was:

> The content was excellent and the presenters were great. They had tremendous credibility because they were the actual people who had been working on these ideas and you weren't getting it second hand. Both the presenters worked very well together. It is important to develop a professional development need over the course of a year, that is, to have a theme on which each of the conferences throughout the year can focus. Something like the language in servicing can be done like this because it is relevant to everyone. (M1A.2)

The Term 3 conference was very successful in developing principals' knowledge and understanding of performance indicators as a management function related to planning.[27] However, at this stage it is also pertinent to consider the outcomes of the Fairmont model in terms of developing knowledge, understanding and skills in establishing a school budget.

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[27] Throughout validation interviews principals continued to confirm their knowledge and understanding of performance indicators. One principal explained, "In our school we are redefining our performance indicators. We found in one particular instance, when we were planning, that we were missing a performance indicator altogether in one area that had been identified as a definite need within our school. We just didn't have a performance indicator to cover it. So we are definitely writing performance indicators due to our understanding of them and of course we know when one is missing." (F2.1)

SCHOOL BUDGETING

Like performance indicators, budgeting links corporate planning and controlling. **The** intended outcome of the Term 2 conference was to develop principals' skills in writing budgets for the purpose of planning the financial control of the school. Positive and negative responses from principals were voiced on these matters.

In the first instance, principals described the success of the Term 2 conference as being hindered by a number of factors. These included the perceived lack of challenge in the workshop, provision for personal need, [28] collegial atmosphere and two-way communication. They identified these as missing factors which reduced the conference's chances of a positive outcome. For example:

> The financial management session provided me with some understanding but then again a lot of it was purely entertainment value I suppose rather than actual practical strategies for doing things. (M1A.2)

> I found the second Term conference the least successful because the presenters did not work at involving the principals. It was very much a stand and deliver style. At no time were we given the time to discuss, in depth, the material that had been presented. What would have been good would have been the opportunity to discuss the material while the presenters were still there so they could have been involved. (M3.6)

> Budgeting is what we have done and that was the area I felt I needed some professional or expert help in. However, what we got wasn't as deep or as detailed as I would have liked. (M3.8)

> Budget management - I have no problem with that anyway. I didn't find I had anything to take away from that session. (M1A.1)

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[28] One principal confirmed that budgeting was not a personal need. He said, "I never really had a major hassle with budgeting all along. I guess any doubts I had regarding budgeting was overcome to a large degree through the program I covered in my previous district. We ran it as a theme over the year." (M3.7)

I didn't like the budget management session we were given at the conference. I think other principals didn't get as much out of it as they had hoped either. I remember talking to (...) and he said he wanted to know how to decide how many dollars should be allocated to what areas. Unfortunately all the allocating had been done for us on the worksheet. So it was just a matter of determining which areas you wanted to cut out. (M3.2)

In contrast to this negative perception of the actual workshop experience, other principals described how they were applying the strategies they had gained. Three principals specified how the training received in this area had influenced their behaviour at the school level:

The budgeting concepts I picked up I have put into place. (F2.1)

I now use the strategy they suggested of keeping 10% of the school grant as back-up and allocating money for the replacement of equipment and that sort of stuff. (M3.1)

The budgeting at my school now involves the dividing of school funds according to need, then the setting aside of a small portion for maintenance, then teachers indicate the things they need in their area and we allocate the funds accordingly - then the teachers manage these areas. (M1.2)

In addition to these budgeting strategies, the Term 2 conference introduced principals to cost or expense centres. It could be argued that the management function of establishing cost or expense centres relates to how principals organise the school. In other words, a cost centre may be seen as a means of empowering work groups who have the responsibility for achieving specific objectives. Nevertheless, cost centres provide corporate managers with another strategy for planning financial control. To this end, the Term 2 conference aimed to develop principals' knowledge and skills in this strategy so as to control organisational performance by pre-determining inputs in monetary terms (Stoner, et al., 1985, p.757).

Cost centre management extends the school budgeting function. It delegates to staff responsibility for estimating input costs and monitoring expenditure. Again,

principals' comments highlighted their understanding and use of this function in relation to planning:

> I explained to the staff how much money we had to budget to the curriculum areas and asked the staff to take on cost centre management. I explained what they needed to do in terms of looking at what resources were available in their area and deciding what needed to be purchased. As a small school we don't all go off with two or three cost centres each and work on our own. After we sort out what's needed we sit down together and work as a group in planning how the money is to be spent in order to meet our priorities. (M3.1)

> As a result of the financial management conference in Term 2, I now feel confident to take the four major focus areas of the school's development plan and work out with the staff who is going to be responsible for what. The staff are quite happy to take on these cost centres. (M3.6)

> Our staff meetings are more purposeful because we deal with the administrative issues, like should we increase the morning tea fund or not, and then we get down to school development business. That's when the teachers' responsible for a cost centre report on progress in terms of what resources have been bought. (M3.4)

Evidence suggests that principals, throughout 1990, developed budgeting skills associated with corporate planning. Principals' negative response to the actual Term 2 conference's workshops on budgeting suggests that knowledge and skills in this area may have resulted from other professional development influences rather than the Fairmont model. [29] However, given the one-to-one relationship between the content of the Term 2 conference and the strategies principals have applied and the lack of evidence regarding other professional development influences, the product evaluation concludes that improved skills in school budgeting was a positive outcome of the Fairmont model.

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[29] One principal supported this claim by saying, "Yes I definitely needed professional development in budgeting. As regards to the training we had in budgeting I can vaguely remember the professional development that was done here and I think it was valuable. However, during the WAPPA conference we had a session related to budgeting and I found that far more practical to anything that I have had from anywhere else." (M1.3)

MOTIVATING STAFF

Leading is the process in which the functions of management are directly related to the people of the organisation. A manager's level of skill in motivating, directing and communicating with staff for the purpose of achieving organisational goals determines his/her effectiveness in the process of leading. In other words, the manager's capacity to lead relies upon the ability to get others to follow (Stoner, et al., 1985, pp.530-531).

The Term 4 conference focused on staff motivation and awareness raising. The intended outcome of this professional development session met with little success. Principals felt that the conference was more of a motivational talk and provided few practical ideas which could be implemented. [30] Principal believed this to be a very difficult area in which to work:

> At the time we did the work on staff motivation. I needed it but I didn't get much out of it. Staff motivation is a very hard concept to deal with, in that, it is a bit *airy-fairy* and if staff don't wish to be motivated or have their morale lifted then there is not much you can do about it. However, I did want to listen to it but it hasn't changed the way I do things. (M1.1)

> The Term 4 conference on staff motivation and awareness raising wasn't a practical session. (M2.2)

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[30] One validation comment which supports this claim was: "I can't remember much about the Term 4 conference. I feel there was a bit of information overload. There was a lot of information coming in." (M1A.1)

Two principals opposed this claim. One said, "The staff motivation workshop at the Term 4 conference has made me look at my own role as the principal in a different light. It has encouraged me to consider the human side and to be happy to let it be when involved in my work. I have made changes to the way I look at things." (M3.5). The other explained, "From the last conference I used information I picked up to change the way I present things to the staff in order to try to motivate them to be involved and to take on responsibilities." (M3.8)

ORGANISATIONAL VALUES AND DIRECTIONS.

Communication is the management function most often associated with the process of leading. Although an important element of planning, organising and controlling, communication is part of the leading process because of its direct association with management's ability to achieve organisational goals through staff.

Effective communication in large organisations is related to the direct contact between the various levels of management. In other words, opportunities to overcome formal channels of communication in order to enhance the 'free flow' of information helps to increase knowledge and understanding of organisational values and direction at all levels. An intended outcome of the Fairmont model was to provide a forum for the exchange of information between district office, central office personnel and local principals. In terms of corporate leading, the intention of this session at each conference implied the improvement of principals' communication skills through increased knowledge of organisational values and directions.

Knowledge of organisational values and directions is an important element in keeping the organisation together as one in the achievement of goals. For example, one principal believed that her communication skills in relation to bringing about change were more effective when she could get the necessary information directly from 'the horses mouth'. Others stressed the importance of up-dated information from the central office:

> All the information I have got from the district conference on Ministry priorities has been handy because I've kept it and passed it on down the school. (M1.3)

> The input sessions are good because simply knowing where you stand as the principal helps to provide that peace of mind. Whether you are totally happy with the direction or not doesn't matter because you are able to get away from all the doubt and rumours. (M3.5)

> The Ministry is determining the direction we are heading and the Fairmont model provides me with an opportunity to have my say about how things are going. (M1.1)

> I found it very important to hear what the people from Perth had to say in terms of where we are heading and what's going on. It's important to get that perspective. (M1.2)

> I believe there is a need for communication to be dealt with directly like the sessions being offered by the Fairmont model. (M1A.1)

Although principals saw the information sessions as important they felt that the style of presentation did not help to create a positive outcome. The predominantly 'stand and deliver' style of the sessions did not allow for two way communication or the 'free flow' of information up and down the organisation. Although the model disseminated central office information, it failed to hold the attention of all the principals:

> Each conference provided a half a day for district input which really was administrative stuff not professional development. I saw it as a waste of time. There should have been other mechanisms set aside for the up-dating of information. (M3.6)

Central and district office input was an intended outcome which, for the majority of principals, had a positive effect related to the formal provision of 'downward' information. Generally, the outcome related to the provision of information. However, there was little evidence to suggest that principals' communication skills were enhanced as a result of the information provided by district and central office input sessions.

CONCLUSION

The product evaluation found that, according to the participants, the Fairmont model provided a number of positive corporate managerial outcomes throughout 1990. Although some individual workshops and sessions were negatively perceived, the

principals said they gained knowledge and skills in the following **management functions** related to the planning process of corporate **managerialism: writing** performance indicators and school budgeting.

Overall, the most successful conference of the Fairmont model was in **Term 3.** Principals believed its developmental link to the **Term 1 conference was an important** factor in its success. As a result, principals considered that they developed **skills in** writing performance indicators appropriate to an educational environment.

The workshops of the **Term 2 conference on school budgeting were negatively** perceived by local primary school principals. However, the principals **felt they** understood the concepts which were presented and adopted and implemented **some of** the strategies at the school level. Like writing performance indicators, **the qualitative** evidence suggests that the Fairmont model developed principals' skills in **budgeting** and cost centre management and therefore promoted another management **function** related to corporate planning. Thus, the Fairmont model has been successful **in** focusing principals' attention on corporate planning skills.

The Fairmont model, in its attempt to develop skills in corporate leading, **provided** training in motivating staff and knowledge of organisational values and directions. The product evaluation found little evidence to suggest that the model was **successful** in developing principals' skills in the management functions of motivating **staff or** communication through increased knowledge of organisational values and **directions.** Furthermore, the data collected did not point to perceived outcomes, either **intended** or unintended, which enhanced principals' skills in management functions **related to** the management process of organising and controlling.

CHAPTER 13
CONCLUSIONS

The study set out to answer the central question: From the view point of meeting corporate managerial needs, is there justification for the continued use of the Fairmont model? Consequently, although principals play a variety of roles in schools, the analysis of the data collected focused exclusively on professional development and training associated with corporate managerialism. The evaluation was not designed to debate whether the administrative functions of the primary school principal are solely corporate managerial in nature. Instead, it was premised on the view that corporate management is now an integral part of educational administration in Western Australia, as a result of the impact of economically driven public sector reforms in Western Australia on the local education system. In short, the evaluation has highlighted the corporate managerial concerns and difficulties which a group of primary school principals have faced and the capacity of a particular school district's professional development model to address the training needs which have arisen.

The evaluation of the Fairmont model involved working closely with fifteen primary school principals over a period of eighteen months. During this time, data were gathered qualitatively through the use of participant observation at meetings and professional development sessions, informal interaction, and over sixty hours of individual interviews and fifteen hours of validation interviews.

Two major frameworks, corporate managerialism and Stufflebeam's CIPP model for program evaluation, were used to organise and analyse the large volume of data collected. As the organisational structure offered by the CIPP framework has served its purpose in the preceding chapters, the structure of this final chapter is based more on the corporate managerial framework and the characteristics of successful professional development models. The evidence and findings previously presented in

each of the evaluations are used by the researcher to draw a range of conclusions which are discussed according their specific relationship to the frameworks portrayed in Table 25.

TABLE 25
STRUCTURE OF THE RESEARCH CONCLUSIONS
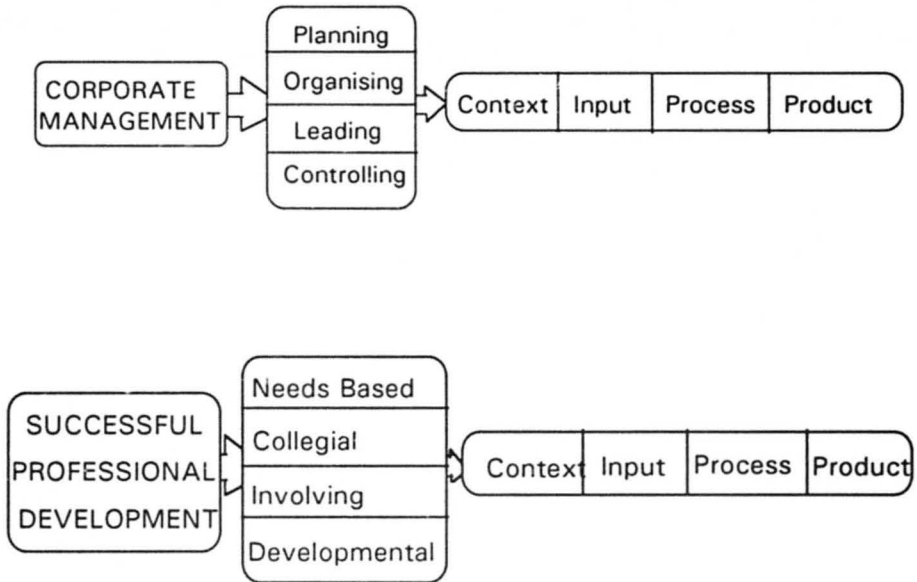
THE PRINCIPALS' PLANNING NEEDS WERE ADDRESSED

The Fairmont model is a   needs based program which ensured that the local principals' identified needs for professional development and training in specific areas were addressed.

The Fairmont model identified the need for professional development and training in the skills of writing performance indicators and school budgets. These aspects were described as elements of corporate planning at the systemic level as well as important training needs identified by the local primary school principals. The I/D/E/A

program, as an alternative to the Fairmont model, also provided training in planning. However, its coverage of time management and goal setting were not perceived by local primary school principals as important professional development needs.   In comparison, the majority of training sessions offered by the Fairmont model in 1990 were more accurately aligned with the immediate and specific planning needs of the local principals.

The press for professional development in the writing of performance indicators and school budgeting emanated from the local principals themselves through a group needs assessment.   This allowed principals direct input into the establishment of their own training curriculum.   However, the process evaluation highlighted two problems. Firstly, the principals felt that the listed needs were too broad in nature and lacked the capacity to ensure that their specific concerns were addressed.   Secondly, the 1990 professional development program was based on a needs list generated in 1989 which rendered it less relevant to newly appointed principals.   This aspect is important, given the high turnover of school administrators in the Fairmont district.

THE POTENTIAL TO ADDRESS IMPORTANT NEEDS

Modifications to the Fairmont model during its implementation in 1990 enhanced its capacity to meet the principals' important corporate managerial needs.

The process evaluation found that the intended processes of the Fairmont model were modified: the role of the task groups was extended to include planning as well as implementation. This additional planning role gave the task groups the responsibility for clarifying specific concerns in relation to the prioritised needs list.   Principals explained how they were contacted at various times throughout the year by task group members seeking further understanding of their needs.

This process, which helped to concentrate the professional development session's focus onto the specific concerns of an identified need, also assisted in making the program more relevant for newly appointed principals. Principals who were not involved in the original needs assessment conducted in 1989 were able to discuss their concerns with those responsible for the planning and implementation of the district's professional development. Hence, the 1990 professional development program closely matched the immediate concerns of all the principals. This change of role for the task group enhanced the model's capacity to meet the principals corporate managerial needs. It is important for the success of the model that this approach to the planning and implementation of professional be continued. [31]

LEADERSHIP SKILLS WERE NOT ADDRESSED

The Fairmont did not cater for the principals' most sought after professional development need. I/D/E/A's structured program provided a better option than the Fairmont model in terms of providing the interpersonal communication skills of corporate leadership.

The process of leading involves a number of management functions related to a bottom-up leadership style. It requires skills in interpersonal communication, motivation and the use of power. The coverage of these skills by the Fairmont model was limited to the aspect of motivation. During one conference, information on various theories of motivation were presented which, according to the product evaluation, did not result in a change of behaviour or attitude by the principals. This was due to the non-practical nature of the professional development session on

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[31] One principal supported the continuation of the Fairmont model when he said, "The Fairmont model should continue because it is fair. The Ministry is driving the training agenda and the model is facilitating that but, equally the task group process provides me with the opportunity to have my say. It gives me a chance to deal with the Ministry's training agenda in my way - when I'm ready." (M2.2)

motivation. The principals felt it was little more than a motivational talk and, as such, provided them with little to take away and use at the school level.

In addition to staff motivation, the Fairmont model provided input sessions from the district superintendent at each conference throughout 1990. The intention of these sessions was to assist principals in their corporate leadership role by providing information on Ministry values and directions. Although principals described these sessions as an important part of the Fairmont model, they felt the 'free flow' of information through a two-communication process was needed to make the presentations more personally involving. Consequently, both attempts to meet the need for motivation skills experienced little success. Thus, the Fairmont model could not be supported in its current form as a mechanism for the development of leadership skills.

The most important professional development and training need identified by the local primary school principals' was interpersonal communication skills. This element of corporate leadership was not addressed by the Fairmont model. In comparison, the I/D/E/A program did provide for the development of interpersonal communication skills. Two specific sessions of the I/D/E/A program dealt with skills related to a bottom-up management style. These sessions raised principals' awareness of the importance of their relationship with staff and engaged them in analysing strategies associated with effective interpersonal communication. The attention given to this important training need provided grounds for the selection of the I/D/E/A program over the Fairmont model. However, the needs base of the Fairmont model and the role of the task group highlight its potential to address this need in the future.

ORGANISING AND CONTROLLING SKILLS WERE NOT A NEED

In 1990, the principals' sought professional development in the areas of planning and leading. Primarily, the Fairmont model did not focus on skills in organising and controlling, as skills in these management processes had not been accorded a high priority by the principals.

Changes in the organisational relationship between schools and the central office of the Ministry of Education have been a major influence upon the development of skills associated with a 'loosely-coupled' organisational style and an 'outcomes' oriented controlling process. In particular, the principal's responsibility for establishing school decision making groups as well as increasing the involvement of staff in decision making and program implementation has emphasised the need for skills in group management, delegation, negotiation and conflict resolution. As well, the need to account for school performance requires skills in monitoring, evaluating and taking corrective action.

In relation to organising skills, the prioritised needs list generated by the Fairmont model identified several professional development and training needs, such as, group management/process skills, facilitation and co-ordination skills, program evaluation techniques and monitoring skills. However, the actual program provided by the Fairmont model did not include coverage of these areas. The system identified the principals' role in organising as the development of a school decision making group and the building of a stable and effective staff team. However, the local principals' believed that their concerns in relation to establishing school decision making groups and fostering staff involvement in program planning, implementation and evaluation necessitated the development of interpersonal communication and motivation skills. Interestingly, the principals did not acknowledge the need for professional

development in organising skills as reflected by the system and the original 1988 needs assessment conducted by an outside academic management consultant.

The curriculum inherent in the I/D/E/A program provided training in aspects of organising regardless of any identified need. For example, two sessions of the I/D/E/A program provided information and activities related to assessing the school's current organisational practices. Consequently, the I/D/E/A program, unlike the Fairmont model, used time and resources to deliver professional development on particular elements which were not perceived as important needs by local principals.

In terms of skill development in controlling, the prioritised needs list of the Fairmont model identified needs in monitoring and program evaluation. Furthermore, the system argued that the ability to monitor, evaluate and report on the achievement of the school outcomes is an important part of the accountability mechanisms in a 'loosely-coupled' organisation. However, the Fairmont model sessions offered throughout 1990 did not focus on these particular issues.

The imported curriculum of the I/D/E/A program spent some time covering the evaluation of the school improvement project. It introduced principals to the evaluation question which focused on outcomes. The monthly sessions of the I/D/E/A program were structured to cover these and other skills as part of a preconceived curriculum on school management and instructional leadership. It assumed a professional development needs base which was not confirmed by the local principals. In contrast, the localised Fairmont model, which based its direction on the needs of those who receive the instruction, demonstrated its capacity to focus limited resources on these areas. Arguably, in dealing with these aspects, the I/D/E/A program may have provided skills valued by principals, but not ones identified through a formal needs analysis exercise.

THE FAIRMONT MODEL IS NEEDS BASED

The Fairmont model has the potential to cater for the local principals' immediate training needs.

The preceding sections of this chapter have demonstrated how the group needs assessment of the Fairmont model allowed local principals' a degree of control over their own training agenda. Furthermore, the modifications to the Fairmont model enhanced its capacity to cater for the specific concerns related to the broad direction which was set. It is important that future enhancements or modifications continue to bear in mind the value of catering for areas of perceived need as identified by program participants.

The needs based approach of the Fairmont model provided a more appropriate training course than the imported curriculum package offered by the I/D/E/A program. Furthermore, the modified role of the task group to include the clarification of needs assisted in developing two characteristics of successful professional development programs, ownership and collaboration, which the Fairmont model was originally perceived as lacking.

Thus far, the conclusions have focused upon the delivery of corporate managerial needs and, as a result, have illustrated the relevance of the Fairmont model's program content to the local principals. As a result, it is recommended that the needs based characteristic of the model should continue to be maintained and encouraged.

EXTERNAL INPUT AND COLLEGIAL SUPPORT ARE IMPORTANT

Some principals were concerned at the use of lectures as the primary teaching method used throughout professional development sessions offered by the Fairmont model, while others saw them as an important source of external information. As a result, there was a desire for a balanced approach, one which combined external input and collegial support.

The conference style of the Fairmont model comprised mainly of lecture sessions from visiting experts. This predominantly one way communication approach to professional development was criticised by some principals who felt that it lacked the capacity to create a learning environment in which their needs could be met. They sought a more interactive learning process which encouraged personal involvement through two way communication and problem solving. The I/D/E/A program appeared to meet the principals' need in this regard by encouraging the development of an open and supportive collegial group which, through two way communication and brainstorming techniques, would involve them in the use of their own expertise in developing solutions to problems. However, although principals spoke favourably of the collegial support group, they still acknowledged a need for external input at professional development sessions.

Principals held the belief that no one presentation format had the capacity to meet everyone's needs. In order to create a more generic approach, the principals sought a balance between the presentation styles offered by the I/D/E/A program and the Fairmont model. Therefore, the ideal professional development model was perceived as one which would actively involve the individual through the development of an open collegial support group whilst stimulating new ideas through the presentations given by outside experts.

The permanent structure of the Fairmont model needs to enhance its flexibility by developing a more collegial approach to professional development. Principals were very concerned about the inability to discuss issues at the point of delivery. They were happy to receive input from external consultants and presenters, but felt they needed the opportunity to discuss what was being presented. The Fairmont model would be improved if it developed more sessions which allowed time for two-way communication, thus combining its strengths with those of the I/D/E/A program; that is, integrating external input and collegial problem solving into the future implementation of the model.

THE FAIRMONT MODEL HAS THE CAPACITY TO BE DEVELOPMENTAL

The positive outcome of the Fairmont model was due to its developmental nature. The developmental link between the first three conferences ensured that the principals' planning needs were achieved.

The effectiveness of the Fairmont model could be improved by continuing to maintain a developmental approach to training. The most successful training session of 1990 was developmentally linked to earlier conferences. Principals expressed this view by explaining that there was a direct relationship between the aims of this conference and the knowledge and information presented at earlier conferences which extended their understanding in a sequential fashion.

Principals commented on the need for the Fairmont model to continue to focus on one major training need for the year in order to build knowledge and expertise up over the course of a number of activities and sessions which were graded in complexity. In addition, this would allow principals the time to implement and trial new ideas at the school level. During 'follow-up' sessions principals could discuss problems they encountered as well as gather further information regarding the particular theme.

FINAL COMMENTS

In summary, the evaluation concludes that there are grounds to justify the continuation of the Fairmont model. In the first instance, it is a needs based program in which principals are fully involved in the planning and implementing of their own professional development. Such an approach, which complements the education system's continuing move towards self-determination, should be encouraged because it facilitates ownership for program outcomes.

Secondly, overall the Fairmont model proved to be a better option than the I/D/E/A program in terms of catering the corporate managerial needs of local principals. Although elements of the I/D/E/A program catered for aspects of corporate management, its prepackaged training curriculum does not provide the assurance that the principals' needs will be met.

Thirdly, the modifications to the Fairmont model enhanced its capacity to meet the principals' corporate managerial needs. And finally, participation in the Fairmont model's program led to positive outcomes in terms of developing corporate managerial skills.

Although grounds for the continuation of the Fairmont model exist, decision makers responsible for its future implementation need to bear a number of important issues in mind in order to facilitate its continued success. These include the need for: the on-going involvement of task groups in both planning and implementation; the program to be planned and implemented in the same year; professional development sessions to foster a collegial support base; and, a developmental approach to professional development conferences.

The constant change over of principals from year to year reinforces the need for the Fairmont model to be a one year program. The input evaluation demonstrated that the implementation of the model in 1990 was conducted over a one year period as opposed to its intended two year cycle. It is important that the Fairmont model retains the one year program and does not revert to its origi᾿ al intention of a two year planning and implementation cycle. The latter approach would mean that newly appointed principals would experience professional development based upon the needs identified by other principals prior to their arrival in the district. [32]

The needs assessments should be conducted at the beginning of each year in order to allow new principals to actively participate in the establishment of needs. Task groups should be able to contact principals who identified specific needs, prior to the implementation of the conference, to ensure that what is being offered will meet the needs of principals.

It is important for the Fairmont model to foster the development of the collegial group of principals. The capacity of the Fairmont model to provide a good balance between the use of external input and the collegial group of principals as its means of professional development will enhance its future success.

Finally, the Fairmont model needs to limit its professional development focus for the year. In other words, the coverage should focus on addressing, in developmental stages, one professional development need identified by local principals.

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32 In reference to the need to ensure that professional development in the Fairmont district retained a one year program, one principal explained, "When we went into the second year of the I/D/E/A program we ended up with principals at all different levels. We have those who have been in the program all along and we have those who have just arrived. It is very difficult to mould the group. As a result, I think a lot of people are missing out. I think the I/D/E/A group has run its course up here." (M3.8). Another principal said, "You need to get rid of the first term conference and spend some time identifying the training needs for the year. Terms 2, 3 and 4 is where the needs would be addressed." (M3.7)

The Fairmont model is a needs based developmental approach which places the responsibility for the planning and implementation of professional development in the hands of the participants. As such it has the potential to adjust its training direction more rapidly than a system-wide or prepackaged training curriculum models. This feature, combined with others identified throughout the evaluation makes the Fairmont model a particularly appropriate vehicle for empowering principals to lead their schools into a future characterised by significant disjointed change at both the local and global level.

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